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ABSTRACT

This resource guide is designed for use by all educators who work with English-as-a-Second-Language/Dialect (ESL/D) students, including administrators, regular classroom teachers in both elementary and secondary schools, trained ESL/D teachers, and other support staff such as language assistance teachers and special education staff. The book provides guidelines and specific suggestions that will assist in adapting and/or modifying the regular curricula to meet the needs of ESL/D Students. Contents of the guide will acquaint administrators and teachers with knowledge and teaching techniques for working with ESL/D students. After an introductory section, the guide contains the following sections: (1) the incoming ESL/D student; (2) ESL/D student programs; (3) language acquisition; (4) developing communicative competence; (5) resources; (6) culture; and (7) reference material. (JL)

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English as a Second Language/Dialect Resource Book

for K–12

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English as a Second Language/Dialect Resource Book for K~12

Province of British Columbia
Ministry of Education
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Contents

		Page
Acknowledgments		vii
I.	Introduction	3
II.	The Incoming E.S.L./D. Student	7
	1. Overview	7
	2. Fundamental Assumptions	8
	Nature of Culture	8
	Cultural Acquisition	9
	3. Orientation	12
	4. Assessing Students' Levels and Needs	14
III.	E.S.L./D. Student Programs	27
	1. Factors Influencing Program Selection and Quality	28
	2. Program Options	30
	Reception Classes	30
	Half-day Classes	31
	Withdrawal Programs: English Language Centres	32
	Withdrawal Programs: Itinerant Teachers	32
	Transitional Classes	33
	Support Programs Within a Regular Classroom	34
	Bilingual Programs for Native Indian Students	36
	E.S.L. and Learning Assistance	39
	3. Assessing E.S.L./D. Students' Progress	40
	4. Program Evaluation	45
IV.	Language Acquisition	51
	1. Nature of Language	51
	2. First Language Acquisition	55
	3. Second Language Acquisition	57
	4. Second Dialect Acquisition	60

V. Developing Communicative Competence 65
1. Methods and Techniques of Language Teaching 65
2. Teaching Listening and Speaking 73
3. Teaching Beginning Reading 75
4. Teaching Beginning Writing 79
5. Error Analysis 86
6. Bridge Objectives 92
7. Language Across the Curriculum 100

VI. Resources 105
1. Getting Started 106
2. Interaction Activities 112
3. Drama 116
4. Games 126
5. Poetry 138
6. Songs 142
7. Writing Activities 148
8. Field Trips 152
9. Lesson Models 158
Story 158
Colors 160
Alphabet Activities 164
Art 166
Social Studies 171
Chemistry 177
Mathematics 179
10. Culture: Lesson Models 181
New Year 182
Folktales 183
Feelings and Responsibilities 184
Schools Around the World 185
Musical Instruments 186

Indian Art 188
Learning About a Country 189
Sports 190

VII. Reference Material 193
1. Annotated Bibliography of Classroom Material 193
Teacher Reference 194
Multiculturalism 197
Supplementary Material 199
Supplementary Readers 212
2. Community Resources 216
3. Notes 219
4. Bibliography 222

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Section : I

Introduction

Introduction

English as a second language students are those whose progress in the English speaking school system is not commensurate with their age and/or abilities, due to the fact that English is not their first language.

English as a second dialect students are those whose dialect of English is sufficiently different from that used by the school system so as to restrict their progress.

Curriculum guides in all subject areas, K-12, are available from the Ministry of Education. These documents are provided for use with the vast majority of students in B.C. However, before English as a second language and English as a second dialect students can work in the regular curricula, certain skills, particularly in the language arts, must be met.

This resource book is designed for use by all educators who work with E.S.L./D students. They will include administrators, regular classroom teachers in both elementary and secondary schools, trained E.S.L./D teachers, and other support staff such as language assistance teachers and special education staff.

The resource book provides guidelines and specific suggestions that will assist in adapting and/or modifying the regular curricula to meet the needs of E.S.L./D students.

The contents will acquaint administrators and teachers with knowledge and teaching techniques in the field of E.S.L. and E.S.D. The theoretical base provided throughout the book is vital to an understanding of the practical suggestions and activities provided.

The book should not be considered a complete methodology but should be supplemented by training and further reading wherever possible. Neither does the book provide a total curriculum for any student.

A great responsibility remains with both teachers and administrators to tailor the E.S.L./D program to local situations.

Philosophy of the Program

The philosophy of the E.S.L./D. program is that all students, regardless of their linguistic and cultural background, will have the opportunity to develop their potential to the fullest extent.

While E.S.L./D. students have much in common with other students, they have specific needs in two areas: language and culture. These needs must be met in such a way that, as students achieve a level of fluency in English commensurate with their age and ability, their language and culture are supplemented and not supplanted.

Integration is preferable to assimilation. While E.S.L./D. students must be given an orientation to the larger Canadian culture, there are certain facets of life where students and their families will choose to practise their own culture. Mutual respect between different cultures must be encouraged.

Every effort should be made to place E.S.L./D. students in situations which will maximize their opportunities to learn standard Canadian English, to interact with their peers, and to exchange cultural information.

The degree of success of the E.S.L./D. program depends, to a large extent, on the amount of interaction and understanding between the student, the school, and the student's home.

Goals of the Program

Any program developed from a modification or adoption of regular curricula should enable the English as a second language/dialect student to

— develop and maintain a sense of self-worth;

— develop and preserve a pride of heritage;

— develop communicative competence at a level commensurate with the student's peers, according to the full extent of the student's potential, in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing;

— become oriented to those aspects of methodology, curriculum, and extra-curricular activities that differ from those of the student's previous experiences;

— develop an understanding of and appreciation for cultural differences and similarities.

In a multi-cultural society, it is of paramount importance that the entire student body be involved in a program of mutual exchange of cultural information that will result in an understanding of and an appreciation for the various cultures represented in the school and community.

Section: II

The Incoming E.S.L./D. Student

The Incoming E.S.L./D. Student

Overview

When new students enter a school, the immediate concern of educators is to orient them to the new surroundings and to determine their educative needs. Part of the orientation procedure may require that students be placed immediately in classrooms and that their needs be determined after this is done. Ideally, the initial assessment of students should be carried out prior to their being placed in a classroom, but this is not always possible.

This section of the book deals with the cultural implications that affect the incoming E.S.L. or E.S.D. student and goes on to discuss the orientation procedure for the student as well as the process of assessing the student's needs.

Students whose needs are not immediately identified not only lose valuable learning time but also may suffer psychological damage which could be prevented.

Fundamental Assumptions

Nature of Culture

There are some basic assumptions related to culture that are of importance to educators who work with E.S.L./D. students. These fundamental assumptions are briefly reviewed here.

"Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, laws, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."[1]

Culture provides us with a basis of tradition as well as a new outlook for change and progress. It helps us to understand the needs of a society and of the individuals in that society. Culture reflects human traditions, different lifestyles, and patterned ways of thinking and behavior. In includes rules for routine as well as rules for work and/or play.

Culture decides the kind of gestures and language people use to communicate with others. In greetings, for example, people may shake hands, kiss, embrace, bow to one another, touch noses, touch the feet of another, or salute.

Culture controls the way people express their emotions. People of some cultures display their facial expressions and their feelings of sorrow, joy, excitement, frustration, and embarrassment quite readily in front of others, while people of other cultures keep feelings well hidden. "Adults in our culture who talk too loud are considered brash or vulgar, those who crowd us are pushy, those who slouch are disrespectful or shiftless. In another culture the loud talker may be thought assertive or positive, the crowder to be interested, the lounger to be insouciant."[2]

Culture is not innate. This means that a child is not born with a certain culture. Culture is handed down from adults to children. Children learn through observation and imitation of adults at home and of peers at school.

"Culture is transmitted through education . . . . Education is defined as a process of culture."[3]

When children go to school, they learn and adopt the cultural systems which education is dictating to them. They begin to survive, to adjust, to function, and to communicate in the new environment. They in turn transmit this knowledge to their home environment. If they are encouraged at school to share their culture with others, then the transmission of culture between home and school becomes a reciprocal process.

"Differences in cultural values among various ethnic groups can affect classroom procedures . . . . Different cultural backgrounds involve different ways of perceiving and conceiving the classroom situation."[4] Teachers who understand differences among cultures can often help to ease the traumatic experience of adjustment for the student.

Cultural awareness, essential for empathy, is an important asset for teachers of a multicultural class. Examining one's own culture and comparing it to other cultures is a good way of understanding cultural differences. We should always be aware of the fact that many people do have specific ways of learning to do things. It is not always necessary to demand that the learner adopt totally a new learning style to learn a new language.

"Teaching within the context of individuality, desire, and emotion means that teachers must have an understanding of various cultures, the languages children speak, and the strengths the children possess."[5]

Cultural Acquisition

Knowledge of the nature of culture may make teachers better able to understand different behavioral patterns manifested by some students. Such behaviors may be reflections of their native cultures or indications of the trauma of culture shock. In either case, the teacher's attitude toward these behaviors is often vital in helping the students maintain their first culture while adjusting to an unfamiliar one.

Culture shock is an emotional state of mind. It is often experienced by people who have moved from an extremely familiar environment to a totally new and strange one. When the language of this new environment is totally new and unfamiliar to the newcomer, the shock is more severe. Sometimes it is so severe that people who experience it cannot function at all for a period of time. This shock may lead to

— rejection of the new environment,

— dissatisfaction with reality,

— hostility towards people with other lifestyles,

— a negative attitude towards the social system, and

— inability to adjust and to function in the new environment.

Children, too, may experience culture shock. They will not have been participants in the decision to move to a new culture so will not be psychologically prepared for the total change in environment which includes a new home and lifestyle, a new language, a new school, a new teacher who speaks a different language, and new classmates who speak different languages. The culture shock that children experience will be evident in varying degrees.

Students who have always attended a rural school in their native land may find it difficult to adjust to the new learning experience, especially when the language of instruction is strange and unfamiliar. They may find it difficult to cope with any or all of the total school environment: the classroom situation, the delivery system of the teacher, the curriculum, the communication and interaction with peers, the lunchroom routine, and the playground activities and supervisory format.

In a multi-cultural setting a variety of behaviors may be manifested:

— Some students may refuse to eat with their peers because they are not accustomed to eating with anyone but members of their own family.

— Some students may not feel comfortable eating with knives and forks since they are not accustomed to them.

— Some students wear clothing that differs from the style of the majority.

— Some students may have preferences for certain foods and beverages. Others may have been taught not to touch certain foods or drinks because of religious commitments or family traditions.

— Some students will avoid direct eye contact with their teachers since in their culture the act of looking people directly in the eye may have a meaning other than an acknowledgment of listening.

— Some students tend to smile even when they are in disagreement with whatever is being communicated to them or when they are being reprimanded, since in their culture a smile is a gesture of respect that children are obliged to show their superiors.

— Some students may nod their heads to signify "Yes, I know that you are talking to me," but this does not necessarily mean "Yes, I understand what you are saying."

— Some students refuse, for cultural reasons, to participate in activities which require physical contact.

— Some students may not participate in extra-curricular activities or in P.E. classes (swimming, skating, track and field, etc.) since in their culture these activities are not considered part of learning.

— Some students will not answer unless they know the correct answer. An incorrect answer, a guess, means "losing face."

— Some students may not participate, or put up their hands voluntarily, but will respond willingly when invited to, since they come from a system where student participation has to be initiated by the teacher.

— Some students come from an exam-oriented system. They feel that their daily work is not important since the final exam will be their form of evaluation.

— Some students may be absent from school on occasions when education appears to be secondary to other expectations of the family. For example, babysitting or attendance at ethnic festivals not recognized by the school system may be the reason behind a student's absence.

— Some students may frequently arrive late. Their attitude to time may be different from that of the school.

— Different behavioral patterns manifested by these students may be an indication of the trauma they are experiencing.

— Some students may appear uninterested or tired when they first enter the school system. This may be due to environmental adjustment, time, or system change. It may also be because they lack the skills of communication in English.

— Some students may be very quiet and co-operative in the classroom because their previous training has taught them to be co-operative and respectful to the teachers. This does not indicate that these students do not require additional help or attention from the teacher.

— Some students may be able to read a passage from the chalkboard when directed by the teacher but may not be able to read independently the same content on the printed page. This may be due to the fact that in their native language they have been taught to read from right to left or from top to bottom instead of from left to right as in English.

— Some students perceive the meaning of reading differently from others. For example, some students believe that reading is essentially an oral activity and will therefore read aloud automatically.

— Some students feel that written work is the most important part of the learning process. They pay little attention to the oral or related learning activities since they believe that learning involves copying and memorizing printed words from a text.

— Some students may not benefit initially when audio-visual equipment (Language Master, tape recorder, etc.) is used in the classroom. Until they have been shown the learning potential of such equipment they may feel that this material is more for play than for learning.

— Some students may behave somewhat aggressively on the playground. This could be the result of a misunderstanding that springs from the fact that they have not yet acquired adequate language skills in English to allow them to understand or be understood.

Orientation

The initial welcome and orientation of all E.S.L./D. students in new schools is of the utmost importance. The following are step by step suggestions for helping such students, starting with their first day and ending with their total integration into the educational and social life of the school.

Students and parents are welcomed and received by the teacher or counsellor responsible for E.S.L./D. students. Parents are familiarized with the idea that their participating role in the formal education of their children is necessary and desirable. Their familiarity with the educational system and its goals, their knowledge of educational opportunities during and beyond school years, and their support of their child's aspirations are encouraged since these have a profound effect on the student's learning development and on his or her attitude toward school. Some information about the student's personal and educational background can be gathered at this time, and further information may be collected and added to the student's file later on by different personnel such as the school nurse. The teacher or counsellor uses this opportunity to establish rapport with the parents, to acquaint them with the school premises, and to seek their future participation in their children's education.

Conversation with the student in this informal setting encourages the use of whatever English the child knows. No judgments are made at this time.

In addition to the usual data such as name, address, and age, the following type of information has been found useful by E.S.L./D. teachers:

Family Information

- — place of birth
- — language first spoken by student
- — language(s) spoken at home
- — names and ages of siblings
- — status (e.g., immigrant, refugee, migrant, native-born)

Educational Information

- — number of years schooling
- — type of exposure to English (formal, informal, oral, written)
- — grade equivalency in British Columbia

Medical and Physical Information

- — Medical history of concern to the school (e.g., contagious diseases, vision and hearing tests)
- — fine and gross motor co-ordination

Meticulous record-keeping can save time, effort, and money; but more importantly it prevents duplication and provides the basis for continuity in a student's program. If the student's family moves to another community, as newcomers often do when getting settled, there is some documentation to accompany the student.

Ideally, initial assessment should occur before a student's placement in a classroom is made. However, this not always possible. A new student should not be assigned an official grade until a period of adjustment has taken place and an initial assessment has been completed. The student, the grade teacher, and the parents should be made aware that placement is always tentative.

Some teachers, in an attempt to build cross cultural understanding, make a point of preparing their classes for the arrival of new students. When possible, a "buddy" who speaks the student's native language should help the newcomer become oriented in the first few days. Under the "Getting Started" heading in Section VI of this book, readers will find several practical suggestions for facilitating an incoming E.S.L. or E.S.D. student's orientation to the new surroundings.

Assessing Students' Levels and Needs

Before teachers can determine whether a student requires E.S.L. or E.S.D. support and can therefore place the student in a language support program, a new student's educative needs must be assessed.

The first step in assessing a student's educative needs is to assess his or her language skills. The following is a description of this language skill assessment process.

Components

Ideally all four language skills — listening, speaking, reading, and writing — should be assessed. However, the student's age and language level will restrict the number of language components that can be used. For example, a student who is preliterate in his native language cannot be tested for an ability to use written English. Students who are unable to reply comprehensibly to such simple questions as "How are you?" and "What's your name?" should not be assessed for written English because they are, to all intents and purposes, at the beginning level.

INITIAL ASSESSMENT COMPONENTS		
LANGUAGE SKILL	COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION
Listening and Speaking	Oral Interview	An oral interview test should provide the student with an opportunity to demonstrate both listening comprehension and the ability to use English appropriately (communicative competence). The test should be comprised of sections which elicit (a) general information of the type normally required for school registration, (b) background information, (c) specific structures. Section (a) might contain questions requiring one-word responses (e.g., What's your name?). Section (b) should contain open-ended questions or questions that encourage longer responses. Section (c) should include questions designed to elicit specific structures not produced in (a) and (b) (e.g., Make this into a question: "He ate his dinner.").
	Aural Comprehension	The purpose of an aural comprehension test is to observe the response of a reticent student to English instructions. It may be used as (a) a preliminary to the oral interview, or (b) an alternative, if there is minimal response, to oral interview questions. This type of test can be used with any age group to determine whether or not the student *understands* English. The student may not be able (or willing) to respond orally. The examiner can give the student a series of requests which involve activity so that comprehension can be demonstrated. (e.g., "Open the door," "Throw the ball," "Put the ball on the chair," "Put the ball on the floor and sit down on the chair," etc.)

INITIAL ASSESSMENT COMPONENTS		
LANGUAGE SKILL	COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION
Reading	Simple Oral Reading Inventory or Graded Passages	An informal reading inventory (e.g., the Silvaroli Reading Inventory) is designed to indicate the reading levels of students whose first language is English. It usually consists of a graded word list and a series of graded passages that are to be read aloud. It may be used for the initial assessment of students thought to be E.S.L./D. in order to (a) help screen those who do *not* require E.S.L./D. support, and/or (b) obtain *approximate* reading levels of those who do. An alternative, such as the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, may be used just as effectively.
Writing	Free Composition	A free composition test should provide the student with an opportunity to demonstrate an ability to use language appropriately in an open-ended situation. Commonly, during the oral interview, the person assessing the student notes several topics of interest that the student may have mentioned (e.g., travelling to Canada, the student's family, etc.). The assessor tells the student: "I'm interested in your _____ and I'd like to know more about _____. Would you please write me a story or a composition about _____?" Twenty to thirty minutes, as a general rule, is sufficient time to gain a written sample for assessment purposes. When the assessor believes (through the oral interview and reading tests) that the student may not be a candidate for E.S.L./D. support, another form of free composition might be chosen. The student is given a brief model essay or paragraph (e.g., a description of a room) and is asked to produce a similar one describing the test room.

PROTOTYPE ORAL INTERVIEW	
ORAL QUESTIONS	PROCEDURE AND EXPECTATIONS
Section A 1. What's your name? _____ 2. How old are you? _____ 3. When's your birthday? _____ 4. Where do you live? _____ 5. What's your telephone number? _____ 6. Where are you from? _____ 7. What language do you speak? _____ 8. When did you come to _____ (name of town, city)? _____	Expectations for student: short answers such as "Jane Jones," "10," "February," etc. The examiner of this test should — proceed at a normal speed and volume; — avoid repeating or rewording questions unless asked; — accept and record any responses the student makes but note any articulation difficulties the student is experiencing. If the interviewer feels it is more appropriate, he or she may use a tape recorder; — stop after there has been no response to three consecutive questions.
Section B 1. How many years have you gone to school altogether? _____ 2. Tell me about your school in _____ 3. Tell me about your family. How many brothers and sisters do you have? What do they do? _____ 4. Tell me your favourite story. _____	Question 1 is a conversation opener. In Question 2 the examiner may wish to add an additional prompting comment such as, "I've never been to _____." The expectations for students are that longer responses will be forthcoming for questions 2 onward so it is not necessary to use all of these examples. Choose one and if it elicits very little response, try another item. (N.B. Questions about family may be inappropriate for refugee students.) If the student is frustrated with this type of questioning, stop and proceed to section C. It is not necessary for the examiner to record everything verbatim. Comments will suffice.

PROTOTYPE ORAL INTERVIEW	
ORAL QUESTIONS	PROCEDURE AND EXPECTATIONS
Section C Now you can ask *me* some questions. 1. Ask me my telephone number. _____ 2. Ask me where I live. _____ Ask me a question beginning with 3. who. _____ 4. when. _____ 5. how much. _____ 6. why. _____ 7. Ask me what I did last night. _____ 8. Tell me what the weather's like today. _____ Now I'd like to test your English grammar. Change each of these to a question. 1. He's going home. _____ 2. They will make mistakes. _____ 3. She gets on the bus. _____ 4. He ate his dinner. _____ 5. The work has been done. _____ Change each of these to the negative. 1. That's a window. (point to the door) _____ 2. This belongs to her. _____ 3. She'll go to the store. _____ 4. He said something. _____ 5. I could've gone earlier. _____	As the format for this section is artificial, it is important for the student to understand what is being tested; hence the opening remark. It is always advisable to give an example to clarify instructions (e.g., "Change each of these to a question. For example: This is a table. Is this a table?"). The student is expected to answer in complete sentences. This section has been graded structurally from simple to more complex tasks. If the student has trouble with a given question, try the next item; if the student still experiences difficulty, stop.

A formal interview situation is unlikely to elicit much response from a very young or immature child. If the student is age 8 or younger, it is probably best to create a game or activity-oriented initial assessment. While some of the expectations are similar, there are important differences in content and approach.

ADAPTATION FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN OF PROTOTYPE ORAL INTERVIEW	
Section A 1. What's your name? _____ 2. How old are you? _____ 3. Can you count for me? (Hold up fingers 1, 2 . . . or objects) _____ 4. Do you know A, B, C . . .? _____ 5. Can you say these words for me? (e.g., _____	When administering this section of the test the examiner should — proceed at a normal speed and volume; — avoid repeating or rewording questions unless asked by the student to do so; — accept and record any responses. The examiner may use a tape recorder at his or her discretion. The purpose of the questions is to ensure that the child has an opportunity to demonstrate what he or she knows in English. This will cause the student to experience success and thus to speak more freely. The purpose of question 5 is twofold: (1) for the child to experience success (2) for the teacher to record difficulties in articulation Sounds should include (a) those which most children *can* articulate; (b) those which may pose problems for the specific language group to which this child belongs.

ADAPTATION FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN OF PROTOTYPE ORAL INTERVIEW	
Section B 6. Let's look at some pictures and talk about them. 7. (Draw a family of stick figures.) Teacher: This is my family. This is my mother. Her name is _____. After proceeding with each figure in this manner, ask the child to draw his or her family members and tell who they are.	The purpose of this section is to elicit longer responses and to focus the child's attention on visual stimuli rather than on the testing situation. For question 6, pictures should be colorful and interesting for young children (e.g., *Workbook — English Around the World, Sesame Street Magazine,* photographs of families and/or activities). Question 7 could be an addition or an alternative depending on the child's response to question 6 and the amount of time that is available for testing. The child's attention is focused on an *activity* rather than on the test. N.B. The attention span of the child should determine when this oral interview type test is terminated.

Interpretation of Initial Assessment

The role of the examiner is to listen carefully to the student's language and to record the apparent difficulties as well as the extent of mastery of standard English. This information will be interpreted in terms of the Language Skills Chart (see Part 6 Section V of this book) and will provide a starting point for any language support program the student may require.

Oral Interview

If a student has not been able to complete the oral assessment and has not responded appropriately to the majority of directions given in the aural comprehension test, there is little point in attempting to test reading and writing. For E.S.L. programming purposes, that student should be considered to be at the beginner level regardless of his or her skill in reading and writing English.

If the pre-literate primary age child has demonstrated communicative competence (i.e., the oral test has been easily completed), the child should be placed in a regular class. However, there should be further testing in specific structures at a later date to ensure that no minor needs have been overlooked.

If a student demonstrates some verbal fluency in the oral interview, the additional components of the initial assessment should be used to determine
— the extent of the student's English language competency;
— whether the student needs a language support program;
— whether the student speaks a non-standard dialect of English.

Aural Comprehension

The role of the examiner is to record behavioral responses to instructions given in English. If the student does not respond appropriately to simple instructions such as "open the door," it may be assumed that he or she is at the beginning language level. The examiner should note, however, that the student has appeared anxious, it may be wise to retest at a later date.

If the student does respond to instructions of increasing complexity such as "Put the ball on the floor and sit on the chair," it may be assumed that he or she has some short-term auditory memory and some comprehension of standard English.

Reading

The role of the examiner is to record errors in the student's oral reading and in the answers to comprehension quesitons. The results will reveal additional information about the E.S.L./D. student's oral English as well as his or her approximate reading level.

If the examiner counts all articulation differences or accent differences as errors, the student's performance on the graded word list may be low in comparison to his or her actual level of word recognition. This applies also to the student's ability to read

graded passages aloud. If the student is within two years of the grade appropriate for his or her chronological age and if the oral interview results have been satisfactory, minimal if any extra language support would be needed. To confirm this, the examiner should require the student to write a free composition. If the student demonstrates adequate decoding skills but has difficulty with the comprehension questions, the examiner should terminate the test. (Most commercial test manuals give explicit procedural instructions.)

An E.S.D. student may substitute words or phrases with words or phrases from the home dialect. If this does not impede comprehension, the test should continue without interruption but the differences should be noted by the examiner.

Writing

The role of the examiner is to record, categorize and analyse the student's errors for the purpose of comparing them to those of standard English speaking students of the same age. If the majority of errors are typical of those made by speakers of standard English, the examiner may recommend that the student be placed in a regular class. If the errors affect the comprehensibility of the passage and are not typical of those made by standard English speaking students, the student will require E.S.L./D. support.

Learning Disabilities

E.S.L./D. students have the same spectrum of abilities as any other cross section of the population. The fact that they may require extra assistance to learn the language of instruction does not exclude the possibility that they may need assistance in other areas as well.

As in any cross section of the population, some students will suffer from visual impairment, hearing deficiency, lack of psychomotor skills, etc.[6] Identification of these needs is often delayed or over-looked because of the second language or dialect.

Other E.S.L./D students may be incorrectly identified as having learning disabilities for reasons such as the following:

— Students who are shy and withdrawn may be unconsciously resisting the new language/dialect and culture.

— Others may have feelings of insecurity which are heightened in the new environment.

— Some students may feel that learning a new language/dialect is disloyal to their heritage.

— Some may be inefficient language learners.

Students such as the preceding are not necessarily disabled learners but may require time and innovative teaching to help them develop fluency.

Before an E.S.L./D. student is identified as having a learning disability, the help and advice of many support staff are required. The learning assistance teacher and/or the principal should be able to provide guidance and direction. The expertise of the school nurse or doctor, the psychologist, the counsellor, and the speech therapist, is available to a classroom teacher in further assessing difficult problems. In addition, the record of the initial interview with the parents should be carefully examined to see if the student has had any problems before coming to school.

When a diagnosis has been made, one of the following placements might be considered:

1. The E.S.L. reception class (see Section III of this book) may be the best setting for students so that they can continue to acquire English at their own pace. The difficulty may be temporary.
2. Some students, however, may have a language disorder rather than a deficiency. Eventually, such students, when they have acquired some English, may benefit from learning assistance, or, if necessary, from being placed in special classes.
3. A special E.S.L. class for learning disabled students is a possible alternative in large school districts.

A bilingual volunteer may use the first language as a stimulus and support to develop the student's self-confidence.

The positive reinforcement of the student's peer group in as many situations as possible both in and out of the classroom may stimulate a desire to participate. A wide variety of integration experiences is essential.

There is very little current research dealing with the second language student who is learning disabled. The most effective strategies will be found in classrooms where perceptive, sensitive teachers are presently working with such children.

Once a student's levels and educative needs have been assessed, educators can decide what kind of language support program is necessary. The placement of a student does not end the assessment process, however; assessment is an on-going activity.

These language support programs and the assessment of students within them is the subject of the next section of this book.

Section: III

E.S.L./D. Student Programs

E.S.L./D. Student Programs

When E.S.L./D. students have been identified and their needs assessed, administrators and educators can choose from a variety of program alternatives to meet these needs.

The seven programs used most extensively for helping E.S.L. students learn English and adjust to the new culture are

— reception classes,

— half-day classes,

— withdrawal programs (English language centre; itinerant teachers),

— transitional classes,

— supportive programs within a regular classroom,

— bilingual programs for native Indian students,

— E.S.L. and learning assistance.

Factors Influencing Program Selection and Quality

Number, Distribution, and English Language Proficiency of the E.S.L. Students in the District.

In order to select that program or combination of programs most suited to its needs, each school district will need to ascertain how many E.S.L./D. students there are in the district, in which schools they are located, and the stage of second language or second dialect acquisition they have reached.

Funding

Funds for special classes are available through the Special Programs Branch, Division of Public Instruction, Ministry of Education, Victoria, B.C. Such requests are made through the District Superintendent.

Personnel

The kind of program that evolves will depend to some degree on the personnel available.

Trained Teachers

E.S.L. teachers and classroom teachers who are knowledgeable in language acquisition and its role in the learning process can be catalysts in building a strong and effective program.

Counsellors

The counsellor who takes special interest in, and responsibility for, E.S.L./D. students can be a valuable asset. Welcoming new students and parents, working with the teachers in placement and integration, and continuing contact with the family gives the counsellor a broad overview.

Para-Professionals

In some school districts multicultural workers have been employed to explain and encourage home-school relationships in native languages. The changed attitudes and the solved problems resulting from this liaison between home and school cannot be underestimated. Students and parents gratefully accept assistance in understanding concepts which are difficult to grasp in a different language. E.S.D. students, often for the first time, have positive reinforcement, and school personnel have help in interpreting their value systems (punctuality, attendance, etc.). They are given practical support in adjusting to new systems while retaining and respecting the old ones.

Space Available

The amount of teaching space needed will vary according to the number of E.S.L. students requiring support programs and the type of program selected, but adequate space should be made available, preferably within each student's school. If possible, E.S.L. students should not be asked to travel long distances out of their locality. If a special E.S.L. class is to be established, a room should be found, if possible, in the neighborhood school. The room should be as good as those assigned to other classes and should not be isolated from the main body of the school. Geographic isolation of the E.S.L. class seems to suggest in the minds of some people that these students are, in some strange way, "different."

Priority Given to Language Development

The importance given to language development and the goals relating to language development will influence the kind of E.S.L./D. programs that evolve. The acceptance of and respect for the various languages, dialects, and cultures which all students bring with them to the school situation are the starting points from which all students can learn how to use and appreciate language.

Program Options

Reception Classes — E.S.L.

Organization

A reception class consists entirely of students for whom English is a second language. It is under the control of an E.S.L. teacher who enrols the students and teaches them for part or all of the day.

The size of the class should be kept as small as possible to allow for individual instruction because

— there is often a wide range in the class;

— the quantity and quality of English known by the students varies greatly;

— there is a great variety in the students' educational and cultural backgrounds;

— the students enter the class at various times throughout the school year.

A recommended class size is 12-15 students.

The role of the teacher is

— to assist the students to learn English as efficiently and as quickly as possible,

— to assist the students to become adjusted to the new culture.

Initially, a large proportion of the time will be spent on the oral language skills that students need immediately both in and out of the classroom. As students become more proficient in oral language, they will receive increasing amounts of instruction in reading and writing. Usually E.S.L. teachers place some students in one or two regular subject courses with which those students are familiar as soon as they feel that the students can cope. This gives students an opportunity to mingle with their peers.

After a year in a reception class, some students may be ready to enter regular classes but most students require approximately three years of language support on a gradually reduced time basis if their academic achievement is to reflect their potential. Therefore, even after they have been integrated into a regular class, students will require extra language support.

Advantages

The reception class enables students to receive intensive English training from an E.S.L. teacher who knows their needs and knows also how to teach a second language. The teacher will have materials and texts available to aid learning and will be aware of cultural differences that may cause difficulties. Under an efficient teacher the reception class can provide the students with excellent opportunities to learn English.

Disadvantages

Unless some attempt is made during the year to integrate the students with their peers, the reception class can become an E.S.L. "ghetto." The students have no English model except their teacher and have no incentive to talk English to their peers, whom they may rarely meet. If the integration of E.S.L. students is delayed for a year or more, their attitudes may become set and the transition may become more difficult.

Furthermore, if the teacher is inefficient, the students may have to suffer through a wasted year. If there is no reception class in the students' neighborhood school, students have yet another adjustment to make when they are ready to leave the E.S.L. class.

Half-Day Classes — E.S.L.

Organization

Students spend half the day in their E.S.L. class and half the day in a regular class. In some districts the E.S.L. teacher works with primary children during one half of the day and with intermediates during the other half. In other districts the split is between elementary students and secondary school students.

Advantages

Students have an opportunity to receive intensive English training coupled with the chance to meet and mingle with their peers in a normal school situation. Also, the E.S.L. teacher is able to meet a wide age range of students without having them all in class at the same time.

In elementary schools, where timetables are usually flexible, the system seems to work quite well and few problems are encountered. Regular teachers and classes have an opportunity to enjoy the newcomer, but the burden of teaching English to the student does not rest solely on the regular teachers.

In districts where the number of E.S.L. students is not large enough to warrant employing a full-time teacher there are several ways of staffing a half-day class. A part-time teacher can be used; a full-time teacher can be used part-time in E.S.L. and part-time as a regular teacher; or a full-time teacher can be used to operate two part-time E.S.L. programs in neighboring schools.

Disadvantages

In secondary schools the half-day class cuts into rotating or modular timetables and thus causes students to miss a third or more of each course. Students tend to resent this as they see those all-important credits slipping away, while teachers feel they cannot be responsible for teaching students who are constantly missing class. Half-day classes are therefore not recommended for secondary schools where the timetable varies from day to day.

Withdrawal Programs: English Language Centres

Organization

An English Language Centre provides a support service for E.S.L./D. students. Students are withdrawn from regular classes for varying periods of time to attend the centre in groups which range in size from 2 to 8 or 10. The E.S.L./D. teacher helps classroom teachers identify students who need support and organizes equipment and materials to meet the needs of these students. The E.S.L./D. teacher also acts as a resource for classroom teachers and advises other staff on such matters as grade placement and language support programming decisions. The centre should be given a central location in the school so that students and teachers may use it as a resource during their unscheduled time.

Advantages

Students are able to take part in the subject areas they can cope with yet receive assistance in school and participate in an increasing number of activities at the same time. The centre is particularly helpful to students who have had some instruction in English either in Canada or in their native countries. Such students are said to be in a transitional stage of language learning.

Disadvantages

Language centres can be misused. Sometimes too many students are sent to a language centre, thus overloading the teacher and making it impossible for him or her to do a good job. And occasionally students with behavioral problems are assigned to the centre; this hampers the work of the teacher.

It is essential for the E.S.L./D. centre teacher, the regular subject teachers, and the student to work as a team with clearly articulated objectives.

Withdrawal Programs: Itinerant Teachers

Organization

In some districts the E.S.L./D. teacher travels from school to school and withdraws those students who need help. The school principal arranges for space where the teacher can work with students, and the teacher brings all the necessary materials.

The teacher's responsibilities are many and varied, ranging from timetabling to programming. Liaison with the classroom teacher, the principal, and the parents is vital if the goals of the program are to be understood and supported. The itinerant teacher designs individualized programs for each student and provides "seat work" material for the classroom teacher to use between visits.

Advantages

In districts where the E.S.L./D. students requiring language support are spread throughout a number of schools and over a wide area, this system allows students to receive some professional help and individual attention which might otherwise be denied them. In some districts poor transportation or inclement weather can make it difficult for students to travel to a central location.

Disadvantages

If the E.S.L./D. teacher is expected to service too many schools that are too far apart, visits may be limited to a half-hour twice a week. This is insufficient time for students to get the help they need.

Because the teacher is not a member of the staff, he or she may be banished to the bookroom or a cupboard under the stairs, and this creates the impression that what is being done is of relatively little importance. The teacher may have nowhere to store materials and may consequently have to carry all his or her supplies around.

If the teacher spends recess and lunchtime travelling to the next school, there may be little contact with the regular staff or with parents. This makes co-operation for the good of the student difficult.

Transitional Classes

Organization

The interpretation of "transitional" varies from school to school, but generally it applies to secondary school classes attended by students who have been partially integrated into regular programs and whose second language/dialect has developed to a stage where they can function within specific areas with some linguistic modification.

Transitional classes are usually in subject areas, such as English literature, social studies, or science, where the interpretive and technical use of language is demanding. The linguistic systems are modified in such programs, not the subject content. A transitional social studies class may follow the regular curriculum content, for example, but this will be modified to accommodate the students' language needs and to bridge any gaps in their concept development and/or factual knowledge such as map reading or familiarity with the history and geography of Canada.

To ensure a balance between subject content and language development, such transitional programs are sometimes planned and taught by a team of teachers consisting of a subject area teacher and an E.S.L. teacher. Sometimes subject area teachers who are trained in E.S.L. develop and teach their own programs. Whatever the variation, the ultimate goal is to encourage the student's integration into the regular program as quickly as possible. Thus a student in a transitional social studies 9 program would anticipate entering a regular grade 10 social studies program in the following term or semester. It is important to note that there are no transitional classes at the grade 12 level.

Advantages

Students are able to experience success in a subject area without being overwhelmed by the language demands specific to that subject. Credits are awarded for successful completion of transitional classes in some school settings, thus enabling the student to experience a sense of reward for progress and achievement. Transitional classes also provide an environment in which the teacher and students can concentrate on the language related to the subject area and the development of skills fundamental to that area.

Disadvantages

In a large secondary school some timetabling difficulties may ensue. In addition, it may be difficult for some schools to arrive at a consensus on the granting of credits for transitional classes because other students and teachers question the validity of such classes. Misunderstanding may result if the purpose and objectives have not been clearly stated.

Support Programs Within a Regular Classroom

Support programs within the regular classroom are a viable alternative when support personnel and classroom teachers work in close co-operation.

Once the students and their needs have been identified by the E.S.L. resource teacher or learning assistance teacher, the resource teacher and classroom teacher will set up a language support program which will be supplementary to and concurrent with classroom activities. Based on the acceptance of and respect for the language/dialect and culture of each student, support programs can offer countless opportunities to expand the appreciation of similarities and differences among languages and cultures for all students. The following features may be considered in organizing a support program:

Grouping

The composition of the groups should be flexible to allow for both the linguistic and social needs of the students. E.S.L./D. students need opportunities to practise the mechanics of the language (linguistic competence), and all students need opportunities to express themselves and to understand the ideas expressed by others (communicative competence).

Peer Involvement

The training and encouragement of English speaking students to be actively involved in the development of their peers' second language skills increases their awareness of language and its uses, sensitizes them to an understanding of cultures and languages

other than their own, and facilitates the interchange of ideas and feelings. Some examples of involvement activities are

— cross-cultural sharing of games, songs, sports, customs, etc.;

— greetings and farewells in all the languages of the class (oral and written);

— group projects such as building a model of the solar system or the dramatization of a story.

Content Areas

Teachers can build on the knowledge and concepts which the students already have in their native languages. Some specific vocabulary and syntax will have to be taught so that students can carry out processes that they may already know. For example, the student who recognizes the equation 14 + 10 = may not understand the variability of the teacher's instructions to "add," "find the sum of," "find out how much 14 plus 10 equal," "find how much 14 plus 10 is," "find how much 14 plus 10 are," or "find the answer to 14 and 10." The fluency and richness of expression which the student has in his or her first language/dialect will not characterize his or her second language for some time. Many teachers find it both interesting and enlightening to record and analyse the wealth of linguistic expression they themselves use daily in the classroom.

Students will not necessarily have acquired the same knowledge and concepts as their peers. Some will be far more advanced in some areas; others will lack even basic information in some areas. Such differences are due to educational background as well as learning abilities. For example, some students in the secondary age group have never been exposed to maps. The concepts developed in mapping skills will therefore have to be organized and specifically taught so that such students can "bridge the gap" and function with the peer group.

Other students have acquired a knowledge of some mathematical concepts such as those in algebra at the elementary level. Such students will likely be ahead of their peer groups in this area and therefore can experience a feeling of success which will compensate somewhat for their feelings of frustration in learning a new language/dialect.

Still other students will have a knowledge and understanding of natural environment which far surpasses that of the peer group. The practical experience of such students can be a useful resource to the classroom teacher in planning specific projects or field trips.

Idea Exchange

E.S.L./D. students bring with them from all over the world a wide variety of knowledge and experience which differs from that of their monolingual peers. An imaginative teacher can create an atmosphere where different cultures can be shared by vicarious experience and where problems of international importance can be discussed from different points of view. For example, the question "Why do many people from Third World countries have large families?" can lead to a discussion of infant mortality, old age security, health, responsibilities of children, and much more.

3629

Resource Materials

These are vital to any support program. Finding and assembling them is time consuming for the classroom teacher but the rewards make the effort worthwhile. A proliferation of books, magazines, articles, pictures, tapes, slides, artifacts, maps, games, puzzles, and problems readily available for everyday use will help to stimulate and challenge all students. These resources are described in detail in Section VI of this book.

The first few days for the regular classroom teacher and for the new E.S.L./D. student are often fraught with anxiety and frustration. For specific suggestions on "Getting Started," refer to this heading in Section VI.

Bilingual Program for Native Indian Students

In October, 1979, the B.C. Ministry of Education issued a policy statement defining native Indian students as being those students who are children of Indian ancestry including status and non-status Indians and Métis. Among other items, this policy statement explained the following:

1. The goal of parity for native Indian children is a priority concern. Parity means that through regular and special needs education programs, Indian children will in time reach their full potential; and their culture, history, and contemporary life will be reflected adequately in the overall curriculum of the public schools.
2. The Ministry supports the preservation of native languages through the use of the public schools in teaching these languages and, where a native language is the language of dominance for a significant group of native children in a school or school district, the Ministry supports the development and implementation of bilingual-bicultural programs, thereby allowing a student to become proficient in two languages and two cultures.

Such a policy offers full support to the increasing number of bilingual programs being established throughout the province to meet the special learning and cultural needs of the native Indian students in the public school system.

No two bilingual programs will be implemented in exactly the same way as each one is designed to meet the specific needs of a band, community, and/or school. It may, for example, be more appropriate to establish a bidialectal program, the concept of which will be included in the term bilingual education for present purposes. Bilingual education refers here to the following:

> . . . the use of two languages, one of which is English, as mediums of instruction for the same pupil population in a well-organized program which encompasses all or part of the curriculum and includes the study of the history and culture associated with the mother tongue. A complete program develops and maintains the children's self-esteem and a legitimate pride in both cultures.[1]

There are two main categories of bilingual education: transitional and maintenance. Both types of programs, in the initial stages, recognize the need

— to use the students' ancestral language as a first language;

— to teach content matter through the ancestral language;

— to teach the history and cultural heritage of both groups;

— to teach English as a second language.[2]

The difference between the two types lies in the end objectives of the programs. Transitional programs are those in which the ultimate goal is to enable students "to function effectively in an English monolingual educational setting."[3] Maintenance programs seek to develop both the ancestral language and English throughout the students' schooling and set "functional bilingualism and biculturalism as an important education goal."[4]

Bilingual education programs have been further categorized into the following four main sub-types based on differing school and community objectives.

Transitional Bilingualism

This kind of program emphasizes language shift. The students' native language is used in the early grades to facilitate their adjustment to school and their mastery of subject matter. English is used as the sole of instruction when the students have acquired sufficient fluency in English. Fluency and literacy in both languages is not a goal. Instead, such a program seeks to arrive at "the state of English monolingual educational normality just as soon as is feasible without injuring the pupil or arousing the community."[5]

Monoliterate Bilingualism

This kind of program seeks to develop both languages in aural-oral skills, but literacy skills are established only in English. This fosters an intellectural imbalance which may eventually lead to language shift, although maintenance rather than shift is the intent. One factor which may determine the selection of this type of program is the absence of written literature in some native languages.

Partial Biliterate Bilingualism

Programs of this type have fluency and literacy in both the native and second language as their goal. However the L_1* literacy is usually restricted to material relating to the ethnic group and its cultural heritage, thus excluding the technological and economic spheres. Such programs foster language maintenance and some cultural maintenance.

*The symbol L_1 is used to designate a speaker's native or first language; the symbol L_2 designates a second or additional language.

Full Biliterate Bilingualism

The goal in programs of this type is for students "to develop all skills in both languages in all domains."[6] All subjects are taught in both languages (e.g., English in the morning, L_1 in the afternoon), thus providing both language maintenance and minority language development. Linguistically and psychologically, this type of program has been described as ideal since it results in "balanced, co-ordinate bilinguals — children capable of thinking and feeling in either of two languages independently."[7]

Advantages

Programs which strive for the maintenance and development of the student's ancestral language and culture indicate awareness that "a minority student who is confident of and recognized in his more intimate primary-group membership relates more positively both to school and to society (both of which are majority-dominated) and, as a result, profits more from schooling."[8]

Because students have developed fluency and proficiency in their ancestral languages, they can use these skills in acquiring English as a second language. Programs which build on the home language of the students also foster a positive self-image and a feeling of self-worth because they provide students with opportunities to contribute linguistically and culturally.

The language and culture of Indian groups is an important part of Canadian heritage. A more balanced perspective of history emerges when the languages and cultures of Indian groups are studied in bilingual programs.

Another advantage of a successful bilingual program is the engendering of more positive attitudes between the two groups involved. Enthusiasm, active interest, and support can lead to innovations and expansion as community members from both the dominant and the minority groups become curious, then interested, and then participatory.

Disadvantages

Any disadvantages of bilingual education are due to the constraints of school budgets and the availability of trained personnel. Unfortunately, bilingual education is not yet regarded as a powerful educational tool which could enrich and enhance the thinking of thousands of students in both minority and majority groups.

A fundamental tenet of bilingual education is that persons living in a society whose language and culture differs from their own must be equipped to participate meaningfully in the mainstream of that society. It should not be necessary for them to sacrifice their rich native language and culture to achieve such participation. Rather, available language skills should be used to foster intellectual development at the same time as English language proficiency is being developed.[9]

E.S.L. and Learning Assistance

When teachers with E.S.L. training are not available, learning assistance teachers may be helpful in identifying and assessing the needs of E.S.L. students and in assisting classroom teachers in setting up appropriate programs. It is imperative for the learning assistance teacher and the regular classroom teacher to work closely together.

Advantages

Learning assistance teachers who have some background in E.S.L. methodology can provide a valuable consultative service to teachers.

Disadvantages

Learning assistance teachers who have no background in E.S.L. methodology may have difficulty in setting up appropriate programs.

Assessing E.S.L./D. Students' Progress

Purpose

The assessment of E.S.L./D. students who are in a language support program is an ongoing activity. The teacher who is monitoring a student's progress in a language support program will, as the student settles into the new routine, begin some testing of his or her progress in order to

— identify gaps in the student's second language or dialect,

— evaluate short term objectives,

— adjust the program if necessary, and

— give the student concrete evidence of success.

It would be misleading to suggest that an E.S.L./D. student is tested continually and that marks and letter grades provide the only indication of his or her progress. Although the sensitive teacher will no doubt assign a mark or grade when necessary, testing is merely a tool to be used by the teacher and student together as they work toward their shared goal. *The ultimate goal of the program is communicative competence — the ability to use the language appropriate for the situation.*

In-program testing is in reality a diagnosis, a form of interpretation based on observation and results from a variety of tests. A review of this kind of information carefully recorded will focus attention on the student's strengths to remediate the weaknesses.

In-Program Testing Techniques

The following are types of tests which could be used in a language support program but the list is not meant to be definitive. Teachers will want to use a variety of tests throughout a program.

EXAMPLES OF TEST TYPES	BRIEF EXPLANATION
Sound Discrimination	The student looks at a picture and chooses the correct response from the teacher's oral presentation. (e.g., He is washing the car; He is watching the car.)
Elicited Oral Response	The student looks at a picture. Teacher: "Show me the boy. What is he doing?"
Informal Reading Inventory	Word recognition, comprehension.
Dictation	The teacher reads a passage once for comprehension, a second time for writing, and once again for checking.
Cloze (written)	Every -nth word is delected from a graded passage of continuous prose; the student writes the deleted words.
Controlled Composition	The student follows instructions to complete a passage. (e.g., Change "today" to "yesterday" and rewrite the passage.)
Reading Comprehension	The student reads silently then answers written questions.
Problem Solving	The student responds appropriately (oral or written) to a given situation. (e.g., Invite your friend to your house for dinner tonight.)

Error Analysis and Miscue Analysis

Error analysis and miscue analysis are two language evaluation techniques that are among those most commonly used in diagnosing and determining students' progress. Miscue analysis applies to a student's oral reading abilities and error analysis applies to a student's oral and written use of language. Both help to determine whether a student is continuing to move closer to the standard usage of English.

An understanding of some of the possible reasons for errors/differences may help both teachers and students to view them as positive indicators of the second language/dialect development. One of the key assumptions of error analysis is that errors are evidence of an interlanguage system that is neither the target nor the native language/dialect.

Error analysis and miscue analysis are described in detail in Part 5, Section V of this book.

Standardized Tests and E.S.L./D. Students

There are few standardized tests designed specifically for school-aged E.S.L. students and none at all for E.S.D. students. For this reason, on-going objective evaluations by the teacher are necessary if the progress of these students is to be monitored accurately.

Standardized tests are a fact of life in schools today. Instruments such as the Canadian Test of Basic Skills, the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts, the Provincial Learning Assessment Program (PLAP), and the Gates-McGinitie Reading Test are widely used in school districts to assess students' abilities.

Some of these tests contain mental age, I.Q., or grade equivalency scores. All are culturally biased. Therefore, E.S.L./D. students are automatically at a disadvantage when such tests are indiscriminately used.

The following examples illustrate the problem of cultural bias in standardized tests. In the Canadian Test of Basic Skills, Form 1 #90, students are asked, "In this poem, what does April Fool mean?" Items such as this discriminate against E.S.L./D. students because they test a knowledge of elements specific to the culture rather than a knowledge of language. Another example is the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test which is commonly used to obtain a mental age score for a young child whose first language is English. For an E.S.L./D. student, however, it measures only his or her exposure to specific words in standard English. If the test is scored as the manual directs, the results are invalid and do not reflect either the student's linguistic ability or his or her intellectual capacity.

While the E.S.L./D. student is receiving language support, the teacher may choose to use standardized tests for the purpose of familiarizing students with different formats employed in regular classrooms. However, these instruments should not be used with beginners.

There is no justification for using the results of standardized tests to assess E.S.L./D. students' abilities unless one is testing for the withdrawal of E.S.L./D. support.

Testing for Withdrawal of E.S.L./D. Support

In making the decision to withdraw support, the E.S.L./D. teacher should consider his or her personal observations, the results of in-program tests, the observations of other teachers, and the results of standardized tests. A student's ability to use all four language skills appropriately in any situation can be assessed in the following ways.

Listening and Speaking

Teachers interacting with their students on a day-to-day basis are able to evaluate, much more accurately than any commercial test currently available, whether or not a given student's listening comprehension and speaking ability are at a level commensurate with the peer group in the school. The questions to be posed are as follows:

— Is the student able to understand the language of peers and teachers in the classrooms?

— Is the student able to express himself easily and comprehensibly?

If the response to both of these questions is "yes," there is some justification for placing the student in the regular class. If reading and writing have been included in the support program (that is, if the student is beyond kindergarten age) then the assessment of the student's ability in reading and writing must be done to ensure the correct placement of the student in the regular class.

Reading

The student should be able to attain, on a standardized test, a score which is within the normal range of the receiving (peer) group if E.S.L./D. support is to be withdrawn. There may still be some difficulty with culturally-biased questions or specialized vocabulary, but the student should have reached a sufficiently high level of language proficiency that these factors will not significantly affect the overall test results. In addition to using the Cloze test of graded reading passages, the E.S.L./D. teacher might wish to use the Gilmore Oral Reading Test, the Silvaroli Reading Inventory, or the Gates-McGinitie Reading Test.

Writing

The creative writing of the student in question should be compared with that of the receiving or peer group. The language arts or English teacher and the E.S.L./D. teacher are, again, in the best position to make this comparison. The use of the Provincial Guidelines for analysis of student writing in grades 4, 8, and 12 will facilitate this comparison.

Error Categorization

A useful technique for comparing the language of E.S.L./D. students to that of the peer group is error categorization. This is part of the error analysis procedure described in Part 4, Section V of this book. If the majority of the student's errors are found to be of the same type as those commonly found in the writing of the peer group, and if the student's ability in the other three skills mentioned previously is commensurate, then the decision to place the student in the regular class will likely prove to be a sound one.

Program Evaluation

The worth of any language support program depends ultimately upon the progress of the students within the program; this is the subject of the preceding material and is described in detail in Part 5, Section V of this book under the head "Error Analysis."

The evaluation of a language support program must also take into account the broader needs of the community that the school serves. In neighborhoods with a number of non-English speaking families, different emphases in school programming will be necessary for the school to accommodate the different linguistic, social, and educational backgrounds and expectations of students from these families.

To measure the direction and relevance of its program planning, the school may find it useful and enlightening to conduct an occasional survey of its community. Answers to questions similar to the following may help to identify a community's changing needs:

— What language(s) do you speak at home?

— What expectations do you have for the school?

— What expectations do you have for the children?

— Have you visited your child's school in the past year?

E.S.L./D. teachers have a multiple role in any school situation. Welcoming, orientation, screening, placement, program planning, assessment, and integration are all within their responsibility. Selection and evaluation of material; consultation with teachers, support staff, and parents; and close monitoring of students' affective needs are important additions.

Program Evaluation Checklist

The following is a suggested checklist which E.S.L./D. teachers may find helpful in synthesizing student needs and teaching objectives with program evaluation.

Aims and Objectives

— Are the program aims and objectives realistic?

  — Do they reflect student needs?

  — Can most students realize them?

  — Do they relate to the aims and objectives of regular classes?

— Are the program objectives learner specific?

— Which objectives have been met? Why?

— Which objectives have not been met? Why not?

Content

— Is the content relevant to students' academic needs?

— Does the program

  — meet students' social needs?

  — incorporate cross-cultural awareness for all students?

  — provide for development of psychomotor skills (where applicable)?

  — provide opportunities to use language skills for a variety of functions and situations?

  — enable students to explore curriculum content in all areas?

  — allow adequate opportunities for development of the four skills — listening, speaking, reading, and writing?

  — allow adequate opportunities for students to express their feelings and opinions?

Planning and Methodology

— Does planning allow for maximum student participation?

— Is the planning flexible enough to accommodate different learning styles?

— Does the planning take into consideration the expectations of

  — students?

  — parents?

  — other teachers?

  — the school/principal?

— Does planning allow for student interaction with

  — other E.S.L./D. students?

  — other student/teachers?

  — the community?

— Are teaching methods and techniques compatible with

  — current language acquisition theories?

  — student needs?

  — language demands across the curriculum?

— Are teaching styles adjusted as necessary to

  — different learning styles?

  — a variety of situations?

— Have any particular methods and/or strategies worked

  — very well? (specify)

  — poorly? (specify)

Classroom Management

— Does the progress chart reflect student progress and fully record the following aspects of the program:
  - — orientation?
  - — initial screening and placement?
  - — initial programming and subsequent adjustments?
  - — progress tests used?
  - — diagnosis and interpretation of test results?
  - — preparation for withdrawal of language support?
  - — reports from support personnel (if applicable)?
  - — regular consultations with subject area teachers?
— Is there a procedure for evaluating
  - — currently used classroom materials?
  - — new materials?
  - — activities (e.g., field trips)?
  - — student participation?
— Is scheduling flexible enough to allow students to gradually increase the extent of
  - — integration in regular classrooms?
  - — participation?

Cross-Cultural Implications

— Linguistically, are E.S.L./D. students able to function comfortably in
  - — classes?
  - — the school including extra-curricular activities?
  - — the community?
— Socially, are E.S.L./D. students able to function comfortably in
  - — classes?
  - — the school?
  - — the community?
— Are there opportunities for E.S.L./D. students and their families to share their cultural heritage with others in the school?
— Are E.S.L./D. parents aware of the aims and objectives of the program?
— What opportunities are there for parents to participate?
— Is two-way communication with parents facilitated by
  - — the use of native language/dialect?
  - — the involvement of interpreters or home school workers?
  - — the availability of teachers for consultation?
  - — the availability of appropriate school personnel for consultation?
  - — the interest of teachers in the community?

Section : IV

Language Acquisition

Language Acquisition

The Nature of Language

Language has been approached as behavior, skill, knowledge, and habit, and even as an event and as an object.[1] In how many classrooms are students reminded daily after a 30 or 60 minute lesson period to "put away their language" in preparation for the next lesson? Fortunately for human communication, language is not an object (or subject) to be zipped into a case or shoved into a desk or locker.

Language is "an extremely complex, highly abstract, and infinitely productive system."[2] It is a system of arbitrary symbols, meanings, and rules which enable people within that system to communicate.

Basic Assumptions

1. Language is a human universal. All known cultural groups have a language system which their members must learn in order to share communication.
2. Oral language is the first form of language acquired. Written language is a secondary, non-universal form, a visual representation of the oral language. "Writing is a cultural invention, the existence or absence of which has little effect on the basic nature of a language."[3]
3. Language is systematic. All languages are governed by finite rules which control the sounds and their combinations (phonology), the formation of words (morphology), the arrangement of words in phrases and sentences (syntax), and the meanings attached to words, phrases, and sentences (semantics).
4. Language is variable. Despite their systematic nature, languages, through use, undergo variation and change. Cultural interaction or separation, word borrowing, deletions, and word coinage are just some of the reasons for the slowly evolving metamorphosis that takes place in all languages. Space age words such as "astronaut" were not in English a few decades ago, and common expressions such

as "savoir-faire" have been borrowed from other languages. Present day English contains sounds, words, and structures that differ from Old and Middle English and thus is itself evidence that languages change over time.

Extensive change may result in the formation of a new language; moderate change may be classified as a new dialect. All widely used languages have dialect variation.

5. The standard dialect of a language evolves for reasons which are social, political and/or economic, not linguistic. "All dialects of a language, like all languages, are fully adequate vehicles for communication."[4] All dialects are systematic, expressive, productive varieties of language.

Linguistically there are no sub-standard dialects and no inferior, primitive, or sub-standard languages. "Every language in the world is rich enough and sufficiently complete for its speakers to carry out their daily lives."[5]

6. Language is creative. Linguistic creativity does not refer to any specific imaginative or literary use of language but rather to that phenomenon which enables the speaker/writer of a language to create and comprehend an infinite number of utterances from a finite system of rules.

7. Language is functional. People use language for such purposes as giving and seeking information, warning, refusing, denying, requesting, promising, arguing, disagreeing, and expressing emotions. Functions may be instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, and/or representational. These are described in the following chart.

RELEVANT MODELS OF LANGUAGE[6]		
MODEL	FUNCTION	DESCRIPTION
Instrumental	"I want"	Language is used to satisfy material needs.
Regulatory	"Do as I tell you"	Language is used to regulate behavior.
Interactional	"You and me"	Language is used to establish and define social relationships.
Personal	"Here I am"	Language is used to shape one's self and to express one's individuality.
Heuristic	"Tell me why"	Language is used to investigate and learn about things.
Imaginative	"Let's pretend"	Language is used to create imaginative worlds.
Representational	"I've got something to tell you"	Language is used to express propositions, to explain, to describe.

8. Language can be non-verbal as well as verbal. One form of non-verbal language, kinesics, consists of a system of learned facial expressions, hand gestures, and other bodily movements that may convey intentional or unintentional messages, the meanings of which are culturally specific. For example, the North American gesture for signalling approval, a circle formed by touching the thumb to the index finger, is an obscene gesture in South America. Another form of non-verbal language, proxemics, involves the socially accepted physical distance maintained between speakers. These distances are also culturally specific. The comfortable proximity for two speakers from one culture may seem uncomfortably close or distractingly distant to a speaker from another culture.

9. Language and culture are closely related. It is partly through language that customs, traditions, songs, stories, history, and other manifestations of culture are transmitted. To learn a language is also to learn something of the culture of that language group, and this "may have very profound psychological and social consequences for both children and adults"[7] who are learning a second language.

10. Human beings have an innate capacity to learn language. All children who are able to function normally learn to speak the language of their native environment. It has been hypothesized that we are neurologically programmed to

learn our first language provided that we are exposed to that language. This innate capacity enables children to analyse and observe the language used around them and eventually to understand and produce their native language system.

11. Words are labels for concepts. Words are symbols for things; they are not the things themselves. The match of label to concept is arbitrary and becomes meaningful only when agreed upon by a group of speakers. There is no inherent relationship between a symbol and its referent. "Every language has its own arbitrary symbols or words to express the meaning of an object or an idea."[8] This means that word systems vary from one language to another. When learning a second language one must learn an entirely new set of labels which may not correspond directly with that of one's native system. Anyone who has eaten the native breads of India, France, and Canada will no doubt agree that "chapati," "pain," and "bread" do not correlate equally.

    Another point relating to words as labels is that of linguistic equality. "All words in the vocabulary of a language are linguistically equal, although members of every society possess certain judgments and attitudes about the use of certain words."[9] No word is inherently better or worse than any other. The appropriateness, inappropriateness, or taboo status of a word is socially determined.

12. Language and thought are closely related. Language enables us to verbalize, clarify, and share our thoughts. It also stimulates thought and provides "a notation for an entire system of cognitive instruments (relationships, classifications, etc.) for use in the service of thought.[10] Language is an integral agent in the process of concept formation, a process which is in part "learning to direct one's own mental processes with the aid of words or signs."[11] Language is an instrument of thought and of learning.

First Language Acquisition

Most children learn to talk. In what seems a miraculous accomplishment, children by the age of five have acquired most of the fundamentals of oral language. They have learned to understand and create sentences that they have never heard before. Even more remarkably, this feat of native language acquisition is accomplished by children all over the world in much the same way and in similar developmental stages. Although there is still a great deal to be learned about this phenomenon, it does seem clear that humans are born with a predisposition to learn to talk. Children require some instruction, formal or informal, to read and write, to play ball, or to hold a spoon; but they do not have to be taught to walk and talk.

Some theorists believe that children learn language by imitating everything they hear. Although imitation may have a role in the process, it is clear from a cursory study of children's speech that it is not of prime importance. For example, children often speak such phrases as "Tommy stand up table," "Mommy car go now," and "all gone milk," and it is unlikely that any child would have heard such utterances from adult speakers.

Another school of thought holds the view that children learn by positive reinforcement. That is, when a child says something grammatically acceptable, he is commended; and when he says something grammatically wrong, he is corrected, not rewarded. There is little or no evidence to support this theory. Children's utterances far more frequently meet with approval or disapproval on the basis of their truth rather than on their syntactic correctness.

Linguists studying child language have postulated that children hypothesize or, in other words, form a simple general rule from the language around them. For example, the phrases "one dog" "two dogs" and "one hand" "two hands" suggest an "internalized rule" to children that they then apply whenever they can. This results in over-generalization: for example, "one foot" "two foots." As children progress they "adjust" the rule to fit their particular environment. It is this process which results in the development of dialect variation.

The stages of language development are closely tied to a child's conceptual and physical development. Most linguists agree that the earliest cries, whimpers, and coos of infants are responses to such things as hunger and discomfort and are not early stages of language. At the age of about six months, the infant begins to babble. In this babble linguists can distinguish the sounds of every language, not just those belonging to the language spoken in the immediate environment. Deaf infants also begin to babble at around 4 to 6 months but, lacking the necessary auditory feedback from self and others, they usually cease this and any further oral language activity. It is during this period that the normal child's sounds begin to incorporate the intonation patterns or melody of the language around him.

Around the age of one year, children seem to realize that sounds and meanings are related. They begin to produce "words" that mean something specific: for example,

"up," "mommy," "daddy," and "milk." One "word" stands for one sentence or concept. For instance "milk" may mean "I want some milk," or "I see milk," or it may simply mean a drink. "No" is usually acquired very early and is used for negation of all kinds.

These same kinds of developmental processes — from general to the specific — are evident in the child's acquisition of the sound system of his native language.

Between the ages of 18 and 24 months children begin to produce two-word utterances in which there is a definite syntactic relationship evident between the words: for example, "All gone milk" and "Hi mommy." When children begin to put more than two words together, there is often a string of four or five words: "Tommy stand up table" or "Cathy no eat dinner now." Such examples tend to sound like a telegraph message because the function words (prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs) are missing. However, they are sentences in that the relationship of the words to each other is very clear.

As children learn more and more language and adjust their rules to suit the language they hear around them, they begin to use function words and the syntactic markers of their native language.

Researchers have found that this sequence of language acquisition is similar in all children. In other words, the development of language is "regular": the stages may vary in length with different children, but this is not relevant to the progression. Although the acquisition of language is a continuous process, mastery of a large portion of oral language is usually accomplished in the first five years. It is interesting to note that there is no written reinforcement necessary for this development.

Upon entering the school system, then, most children have learned not only the sound system but also the social use of language such as the greetings, questions, and negations appropriate to different situations.

Second Language Acquisition

When a child begins to learn a second language, however, there are some very important differences as well as some similarities in the developmental process.

Since L_2* learners already have at least one linguistic system, the second language is filtered through the system(s) they already know. Consequently, some interference in language learning is bound to occur. For example, some speakers of Italian may have difficulty hearing the vowel sound in "ship,"" a sound which does not exist in their language. They will likely hear only the vowel sound as in "sheep," which is the closest one for them.

Children learning their native languages develop physically, conceptually, and linguistically at the same time. L_2 learners are chronologically older and therefore physically and cognitively more developed than their L_1 counterparts. They have to acquire new vocabulary for concepts such as shape, size, and comparison that they have already developed. But some concepts may be expressed differently in the new language, and others may be relevant only to certain environments. Not all cultures, for instance, divide the color spectrum in the same way. In Shuswap the colors named in English as yellow and green are named as one color. Eskimo languages have many different words for snow while in some languages in the South Seas an equivalent for snow does not exist.

Also, the L_2 learners will be developing new concepts while developing a new language.

Although language and concept development are closely related for all learners, the developmental process itself may for a variety of reasons take longer when a second language is being acquired.

Time is of vital importance. L_2 learners do not have five years to acquire a second language as they did with their first. Moreover they may be learning the second language in an environment where they do not hear it outside school, this being a marked contrast to the warm, supportive environment in which they learned their first language. Because they are older and more aware of social mores and expectations from their parents, their teachers, and their friends, L_2 learners tend to feel the pressure of time, the frustration of being unable to express their thoughts in appropriate language, and the strangeness of an alien environment.

First language learners proceed from meaning to expression of that meaning as an utterance. For second language learners the process seems to be reversed. Beginning with hearing and producing patterns in the new language, L_2 learners gradually associate these sounds with meanings particular to their new linguistic and social context. During this period of adjustment, when they will make many mistakes, learners test their hypotheses against the models of language they hear around them.

*L_1 is used to designate a speaker's native/first language;
L_2 is used to designate a second or additional language.

Older learners, particularly, may benefit from some explanation about the processes of the new language. Because L_2 learners bring with them well developed mechanisms for coping in their native language, they may profit both linguistically and psychologically from some direction in using their powers of analysis and observation to help them in the target language. Language and self-concept are inextricably woven together. Guiora postulates that as children develop physically and linguistically, they form an "ego," a view of themselves in relation to their environment. As they become aware of their physical boundaries in relation to their world, they also become aware of their linguistic boundaries; that is, their language reflects their concept of their position in their world. The older the learners, the more rigid such concepts have become. The psychological implications of acquiring a second language, especially when it is the language of communication in the environment, often pose problems for the learners. They may unconsciously reject the new language and the new culture because they threaten their position, their security, and their sense of self.[12]

Attitude and motivation are powerful factors in learning. L_2 learners have been categorized as integrative or instrumental. Integrative learners have a positive attitude toward the target language and a desire to associate and communicate with members of the new culture. Instrumental learners, however, are motivated by desires which are more introspective. They may want to learn the language in order to improve their positions or to move about more easily. In short, they want to use the language as an instrument for their advantage.[13] Both types of motivation are valid and can be fostered in the classroom. At the same time, it is very important for learners to maintain pride in their native languages and cultures. Without it, they experience traumatic feelings of loss and rejection which interfere with their learning.

There are a surprising number of similarities between first and second language learning. Both are developmental. Both first and second language learners use language creatively; that is, they create an interim system which does not match exactly the linguistic input around them. Adjustments are made developmentally until the "piece" of language "fits" and the learner internalizes it.

Both L_1 and L_2 learners make predictable errors but not necessarily the same ones. As the adjustment progresses, errors become less frequent; and the language produced bears a closer resemblance to the model at hand.

Communicative competence, the ability to use language appropriate to the situation, cannot take place except in real or "simulated real" situations. Meaning is central to language use and communication. In both L_1 and L_2 acquisition, the learners must be totally involved. They are "active agents"; how they will process the material presented to them is beyond the control of the person presenting it.

There is still much to be learned about first and second language acquisition. "At the present time no processing model exists that can account for all relevant linguistic and behavioral phenomena."[14] In short, present models do not "adequately account for the whole range of tasks that children face as they begin to acquire language."[15] New approaches to language teaching will grow out of new theories about language acquisition. Success or failure in the classroom will validate or invalidate existing assumptions and raise more questions and issues to be researched as the spiral of knowledge stretches further into the unknown.

FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING	
SIMILARITIES	DIFFERENCES
— Both are developmental. —Both involve creative construction. — Both involve rule-governed systems. — Both may be adjusted by testing hypotheses against linguistic input (although Braine, McLaughlin, and others believe that the evidence is against hypotheses testing in L_1). — Both contain predictable errors (but not necessarily the same errors). — In both, communicative competence develops in real situations. — In both, the learner is an active agent.	— In L_2 learning, language is filtered through at least one existing system. — L_2 learning usually occurs when the learner is chronologically older and cognitively more developed. — Concepts and experiences from L_1 must be transferred and possibly reordered. — The learning environment and the time given to learning are totally different from L_1. — L_2 acquisition seems to move from form to meaning, L_1 acquisition moves in the opposite direction. — Some explanation about language may help some learners, especially older ones. — L_2 acquisition may interfere with self-concept. — L_2 acquisition is influenced greatly by attitude, motivation, and pride in heritage.

Second Dialect Acquisition

"Since no two people use their language in the same way, there are as many representations of language as there are human beings who use language."[16] When speakers in a regional or social community share a similar representation of a language, they can be said to share a dialect of that language. Dialect variations may be phonological, semantic, or syntactical. The following variations are phonological:

— fis for fish

— town town for down town

— postes for posts

The following variation is semantic:

— copse for a small hill or grove of trees

The following variations are syntactical:

— he for she

— I really jump that time.

Whether or not speakers of one dialect can understand those who speak the same language but in another dialect depends to some extent on the linguistic dimension, or degree of difference between the dialects. However, mutual intelligibility also has a social-psychological dimension which is determined by "the attitudes we have toward our own and others' manner of speech, and these are closely connected with the attitudes we have of the community to which they belong, their political and social relations with us, and our view of the relative statuses of our two communities."[17]

These same attitudes also affect the acquisition of a second dialect. Just as we understand those speakers we wish to understand, so too we learn those dialects we view positively and wish to learn. An environment characterized by mutual respect for and acceptance of dialect variation enhances the acquisition of a second dialect. An environment lacking these qualities, however, can foster resistance in those learning a second dialect.

> . . . minority groups who feel that the dominant, white middle class is attempting to eradicate their native language or dialect, as well as their cultural heritage, sometimes propose active resistance to this eradication by refusing to learn or use standard English. This attitude is conveyed to the children of the community, who may then come to consider success in learning standard English as a denial of their ethnic, racial, or social background.[18]

Teachers' attitudes toward the language or dialect that the students bring with them to the classroom are crucial to the development of the standard dialect.

Dialects are different from, not inferior to, other dialects. Political and economic reasons determine which dialect is considered "standard," not linguistic ones. A dialect's "prestige" emanates from social attitudes, not from linguistic features. It is essential, on the basis of such known facts, that teachers genuinely acknowledge and accept the dialect variations of their students and use the existing language skills of their students as the basis for teaching them to acquire a second or standard dialect.

E.S.D. students are identified by their individual ability to adapt and use standard English in oral and written situations rather than by their country or region of origin or by their socio-economic background. Like their E.S.L. counterparts, they bring to school a wealth of ideas and experiences which are encoded in the language of the home. They are as well developed cognitively as are their standard dialect speaking peers; they simply express themselves in a different linguistic form.

The dialect which students use in their homes has an important role to play in their development of self-concept and in their world view. Each dialect is fully adequate and appropriate for use among other speakers of that dialect. The conflict arises when speakers of dialects considered to be non-standard encounter the dialect accepted as standard by the educational system. As Falk describes, "few teachers take the time to understand the child's position. Until he entered school, no one questioned his ability to use his language. He communicated successfully with the people he knew. Suddenly, someone is trying to get him to speak differently."[19] But unlike E.S.L. students, E.S.D. students must learn to speak differently, not in a new language but in the same language, one they thought they already knew. And indeed they do know it, for all dialects of the same language share common underlying systems and common invariant rules. For example, native speakers of English, whatever their dialect, are not likely to say "the my book" because they all share the invariant rule "that a definite article and a possessive adjective cannot occur before the same head noun."[20] The learning of a second dialect, then, involves learning the surface variations in pronunciation, intonation, word usage, and structure.

Students will speak dialects that are in some ways similar to, some ways different from, standard Canadian English. These will include patterns common to both the student's dialect and the standard dialect, patterns in the standard dialect that the student can understand but cannot reproduce, and patterns that the student does not know. Teachers will find that a comparative approach to dialects will heighten their students' awareness of language and its function.

Section: V

Developing Communicative Competence

Developing Communicative Competence

Methods and Techniques of Language Teaching

Over the past years many methods of language teaching have gained and lost popularity. Linguistic and psychological research has changed our beliefs about language, and the methods and techniques of language teaching have, in the light of this research, changed accordingly.

The following chart summarizes the nature, advantages, and disadvantages of five language teaching methods and presents these methods in the order in which they developed historically. The fifth method, confluent teaching, takes advantage of the positive aspects of the others.

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS			
METHOD	NATURE	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Grammar Translation	Emphasizes the written language. Students read, translate, and memorize vocabulary and use the dictionary.	— Students gain insight into the systems of different languages. — Students gain a sense of the universal properties of language.	— Students learn more about the systems of language than the functions of language. — Students learn to respond only to written language.
Direct	Recreates first language learning conditions. Students learn only the target language, engage in question and answer pattern practice, and use drama and visual aids.	— Students speak in the target language from the beginning of their instruction. — Students profit from visual stimuli and oral reinforcement.	— Students find the recreation of the first language conditions unrealistic and cumbersome. — Students are not exposed to much written language. — Students can have difficulty grasping abstract concepts.
Audio-Lingual	Emphasizes memorization and mimicry. Students listen and repeat sentence patterns.	— Students are encouraged to use the target language early in their instruction and to achieve near native fluency. — Students use "real" language in "real" situations.	— Students may "parrot" language without understanding it. — Students may be bored by the constant repetition. — The lack of explanations may frustrate students.

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS			
METHOD	NATURE	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Audio-Lingual (cont'd)		— Students develop auditory memory.	— Students will not develop extensively in reading and writing skills. — Students whose learning patterns stress visual learning receive no reinforcement from pattern practice.
Cognitive	Emphasizes meaning and understanding before performance (i.e., competence). Students read or listen first and then question. By describing pictures and/or speaking and writing of their personal experiences, students practise using language in real language situations.	— Students become active participants in their own learning process and learn to use concurrently all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. — Students communicate their own thoughts, feelings, and experiences in functional language.	— Students may be overwhelmed by too many explanations. — Students who are used to learning by rote may at first be at a disadvantage. — Students who are older and are illiterate in their first language may find this method unproductive.
Confluent Teaching	Uses various methods (for full explanation see next page).	— Students can profit from the use of different approaches which may accommodate different learning styles.	— The disadvantages of any of the preceding methods are inherent.

Method 5: Confluent Teaching

The confluent teaching method blends several methods of language teaching in order to meet the needs of students. This method takes advantage of the positive aspects of the teaching methods described previously and allows students to profit from a variety of methods. Its disadvantages are those inherent in all the preceding methods.

All students display different learning styles. Some students learn primarily through visual stimuli while others favor auditory or kinesthetic learning. Some learn by discovery while others learn primarily through memorization. Many students demonstrate a combination of learning styles.

Students from various cultures, however, manifest these differences to an even greater degree. Their attitudes, expectations, and educational background all influence the manner in which they learn. Consequently, teachers often find it necessary to adapt their teaching style to accommodate multicultural students. In other words, no one method or technique will suffice for every student and for every learning situation. Therefore, most teachers are forever striving for the ideal blend.

The following techniques and activities might be observed as a confluent lesson progresses:

— To reinforce the correct use of language, students engage in repetition drills and question and answer exercises. Such drills and exercises stem from situations relevant to the student. (e.g., "Look at Ravinder. What is she wearing?")

— Students are encouraged to use their imagination in role playing, puppetry, games, story telling, or art work. (e.g., "Pretend your are . . . . .")

— Students reflect on a meaningful event in their lives. (e.g., "Think of a time when you were proud . . . . .")

— Students discuss and practise (or vice versa) a particular language skill. (e.g., the past tense as exemplified in the sentence "I was proud when my team won the trophy.")

— Students work in pairs or groups, or as a whole class, in problem-solving activities. (e.g., "It is 8 o'clock in Vancouver. The time difference in Toronto is three hours. A plane leaves Vancouver International Airport at 12 noon. The flight will take five hours. At what time will it arrive in Toronto International Airport?")

— Students use authentic language in community tasks. (e.g., A student telephones the Community Centre to make inquiries about the cost, the time, and the duration of a specific course. The student then relays this information to his or her classmates.)

— Students react to a variety of stimuli such as resource persons, audio-visual materials, and field trips. (e.g., The class plans to attend a basketball game held in the community gymnasium. Preliminary activities might include discussing the rudiments of the game, buying tickets, and arranging a time and place to meet. Follow-up activities might include interviewing a player, giving a report of the game for radio or newspaper, preparing a manual of basketball rules complete with diagrams and drawings, or charting the local team's scores over the season.)

— Activities are presented in a cultural framework to encourage cross-cultural understanding. (e.g., Students share with their classmates or others a specific aspect of

their native language or culture. This could involve such things as a report on bathing customs in Japan or a discussion on the greetings and salutations in many languages.)

— Students become aware of the customs and mores of their new environment by participating in acitivities such as Hallowe'en trick-or-treating.

Out of the vast array of available methods and techniques of language teaching some basic criteria for agreement seem to be emerging. It is generally agreed that learning a language is a thinking process and that the development of communicative competence requires student involvement in meaningful, authentic language activities. Thus, providing students the opportunity to use language in real situations both in and out of the classroom is essential for developing accuracy and fluency in their use of language. Furthermore, maintaining and developing in students a positive self-concept and a pride in their heritage are important factors in creating an effective learning situation.

Sensitive teachers are well aware that the complexities of language learning are not easily untangled. Their choice of methods and techniques should take into account the criteria listed above, their own awareness of both first and second language learning, and the implications of current research into second language acquisition. The ultimate goal of any method is to produce second language or dialect speakers who can function comfortably in today's society.

Plan for a Confluent Lesson

The following unit is meant to be a prototype for a regular English class which includes a significant number of E.S.L./D. students who need some extra reinforcement in language skills.

The methods and techniques selected for this sample unit are identified in the right-hand column of the lesson model. Any lesson at any level can include some or all of these components; the choice is the teacher's prerogative. For example, the lesson model included in Section VI of this book for teaching "Little Red Riding Hood" to primary children also uses a confluent approach.

The novel *To Kill a Mockingbird* is part of the grade 10 B.C. curriculum. This piece of American literature has become almost a classic in the language. Furthermore, it provides many opportunities for students to experience and appreciate the implications of a cross-cultural dilemma.

PRE-TRIAL ACTIVITY	
Assumption	Students have read *To Kill a Mockingbird* and have seen the film in its entirety.
Aim	Students will learn to draw conclusions from evidence presented.
Objectives	Students will identify pro and con arguments, draw conclusions, justify conclusions, and empathize with one another's situation.
Level	Secondary: a regular grade 9 or 10 class with a significant proportion of students whose first language is not English.
Presentation	Mock trial — role playing.
Class	The teacher draws from the class an account of the murder which was committed in the novel. Alternatively, the teacher guides the class in imagining and writing a newspaper account of this event.
Choosing of Roles	The class decides on the characters for the trial. These will include a defendant, some defence lawyers, a crown counsel and his or her assistants, some court reporters, some witnesses, a judge, the members of the jury, and a clerk of the court.
Functions of Roles	The courtroom roles are written on the board and the function of each is discussed. Characters are assigned to each role, and they may be chosen by lot, by class suggestion, or by any other technique that seems appropriate. If possible, every student should have a role. The whole class, divided into defence and crown counsel, should help prepare the pro and con arguments to be presented. (This could be a homework assignment.)
Courtroom Setting	In the attempt to make the classroom court as accurate as possible, the teacher elicits from the class facts about a courtroom. Since this activity involves an American courtroom, references to television shows such as "This is the Law," "Perry Mason," "Quincy," "The Paper Chase," and "The Associates" will stimulate students to contribute appropriate information and to apply it to the present situation.

TRIAL: LESSON MODEL		
Court Clerk:	"All stand. Court is now in session. Judge_____ presiding."	Cognitive (role playing)
Judge:	"Please be seated. Court will hear evidence in the case of _____vs. the Crown."	
Lawyer for the Defence	Addresses the jury stating reasons for his client's innocence: 1) The defendant has an alibi. 2) There are witnesses to swear that the defendant was not present at the scene of the crime. 3) The defendant had no motive for committing the crime. 4) The defendant was not mentally competent at the time of the crime.	
The Defendant	Is called to the stand to give evidence and be cross-examined by the Crown counsel. The jurors should be taking notes of the arguments and statements.	
Practice drill of "wh" questions	Examples of questions: "Where were you the night of . . .?" "When did you leave your house . . .?" "What were you doing at . . .?" "Who saw you at . . .?"	Audio-Lingual
Practice drill on questions suggesting an affirmative answer (tag questions)	Example of cross examination: "You had an argument with your wife on the night of _____ didn't you? You borrowed $5,000 from the bank, didn't you? Tell the jury why." Witnesses are called to the witness box to testify for or against the defendant.	
Practice drill on modal questions (would, should, etc.)	Examples of questions: "How long have you known the defendant?" "Would you say the defendant had a happy marriage?"	

71

TRIAL: LESSON MODEL		
Summarizing Arguments	The lawyers for the defence and for the Crown summarize their arguments for the jury. The jury adjourns and makes an unanimous decision of guilty or not guilty. The foreman of the jury presents the jury's decision to the court clerk who presents it to the judge. The judge passes sentence.	Cognitive
Evaluation of Objectives	To conclude the lesson, the students (singly or in groups) write a newspaper report of the trial which presents arguments for and against the defendant and, based on the evidence presented, agrees or disagrees with the verdict. (Students will be encouraged to use structure vocabulary of cause and effect and sentence patterns.)	
Follow-up Suggestions	Follow-up activities could include excerpts from the film *To Kill a Mockingbird* (court scene). Teachers can have their students	
	— identify pro/con arguments,	
	— interpret statements,	
	— draw conclusions,	
	— justify conclusions,	
	— visit a courtroom trial,	
	— compare the legal system outlined in the novel with the legal system of Canada and/or that of the students' native countries,	
	— read in their native language a novel on a similar theme and make a presentation in English either orally or in writing,	Grammar Translation
	— interview a lawyer or a judge. E.S.L. students may choose to interview someone who speaks their native language but their presentation to the class will be in English.	Cognitive

72

Teaching Listening and Speaking

Learning a language means learning the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A learner's proficiency in the language depends on oral language skills. Research shows that children who are weak in oral language skills are often weak in reading and writing skills. For students to develop competency in language skills it is crucial that they develop listening and oral language skills.

The material contained here focusses on the development of these oral skills. Readers seeking information on specific resources that are aimed at developing these skills should refer to the "Oral Activities," "Drama," "Games," "Poetry," and "Songs" headings in Section VI of this book.

Oral language development involves acquiring skills needed to express ideas and needs in oral utterances. This process requires that the learner be able to organize his or her thoughts into speech patterns and then, for communicative purposes, to verbalize them. Thus, oral language development involves the development of skills in the areas of conversation, discussion, aimless talk, direction giving and speech making, story telling, reading aloud, commanding, requesting, and arguing, to name but a few.

Achieving fluency in a second language entails a tremendous amount of hard work. Most drills can be very dull for students and are often not the best means of learning a language. After the initial period of sorting out the sound system, teachers should emphasize cognitive and affective learning. Activities used in oral language development are designed to be interesting, highly motivating, realistic, and applicable to the learner's immediate experience. The type of activities selected should promote the skills of deciding, planning, and organizing and should develop a student's skills in thinking and articulation.

Some Suggestions for Oral Language Development

Getting to know your classmates (asking and answering questions): Questions employing only the verb "to be" can be used in the initial stages, (e.g., "What is your name?" "How old are you?") As the students progress, other verbs can be used, (e.g., "Where did you go to school?")

Reporting: A student introduces a classmate or visitor to the rest of the class. (e.g., "I would like you to meet my friend . . . ." "He is from . . . ." "He has three brothers and one sister." "In . . . he went to a very small school . . . .")

Describing: Students describe to others an object of cultural significance or a family picture. They answer any questions their audience may ask about their subject.

Storytelling: Students retell a story with which they are familiar, perhaps one read or told to them by the teacher, one heard on tape, or one viewed on filmstrip or on television.

Weather Report: Using the weather chart which is part of classroom visual display, a student interprets the weather of the day.

Pantomime: A student performs a familiar story or scene in mime. Another student provides the commentary.

Following Directions: Students work in pairs, one following the directions given by his or her partner.

Word Game: The class sits in a circle. Each student supplies a word or phrase to build up a story. In the beginning a familiar story, one which allows deviations from the plot, should be used as a model.

Sentence Game: The teacher supplies a key sentence to the whole class. (e.g., "Last summer I went to Mexico. While I was there, I saw a bull fight.") The teacher then designates four students to pass on the story while adding two sentences of their own. Those next four students pass on their story in the same way. After about six to eight sentences, or when students are having difficulty remembering, the teacher ends the game. Then the class reconvenes in the circle and students share each other's stories. (e.g., "How many stories did you hear?" "Were they the same?") Now the teacher asks the class to summarize what they have heard and to make one composite story.

My Contribution to an Ideal Community: The teacher invites students to come to the chalkboard and use pictorial symbols to build a community. For primary students, flannographs, miniature models, playdough, etc. may be used instead of the board. Each student is encouraged to describe his or her contributions. (e.g., "What is it?" "What is it used for?" "Why did you choose it?" "How can it help the community?")

74

Teaching Beginning Reading

Reading is the most important skill in our school system. It is the key which opens the door to further learning, to new information, and to stimulating thought. Students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds bring to the task of reading in English their unique backgrounds, experiences, and linguistic skills.

Pre-literate Students

Pre-literate students are those who are not literate because they are too young to have learned to read in their native language or because their native language has no written system.

The teaching objectives of an E.S.L./D. reading program for pre-literature students are to determine the learner's background of experiences, concepts, and language development and to relate these aspects of background knowledge to the new environment by giving students new labels for familiar concepts.

Functionally Illiterate Students

Students who are functionally illiterate in their native language have been exposed to formal reading instruction but have not mastered reading skills. This may be because they have a learning disability, because the instruction has been inappropriate, or because they have had limited access to any instruction.

The teaching objectives of an E.S.L./D. reading program for functionally illiterate students are to develop in students a positive self-concept, to accept the language and experience that students bring with them to the classroom and to make it the starting point in a process which supplements their oral language skills with positive reinforcement and which extends their experience into language, to build a sequential pre-reading program that guarantees continual success, and to adopt an approach to reading that allows students to learn with dignity and success.

Students Literate in their First Language

E.S.L. students may be fluent readers in their native language or indeed in several languages. While these students understand the reading process, they need to be taught beginning skills in English before they can apply their inherent knowledge to the process of reading English.

The teaching objectives of an E.S.L. reading program for students literate in their first language are to develop in students oral fluency, which is the precursor of success in reading, to develop their awareness of the sound-symbol relationship in English (they may already have this in their first language), and to encourage the transfer of their first language reading skills to English. These students need not learn to read again but instead need to learn how to transfer the reading process that they already know to the English language system.

Readiness

Keeping in mind the age and linguistic experience of E.S.L./D. students, the term "readiness" implies that students have enough familiarity with the new language and culture to begin using their oral-aural skills to process the syntactic information (relationship of words to each other), the semantic (meaning), and graphophonemic (relation of sound to written symbol) information of the printed page. These skills, commonly referred to as "readiness skills" (which include phonics, prediction, visual discrimination, perception, etc.) may not require as much emphasis in the pre-reading stage for an E.S.L. student as for a first language student. This is because these skills may have been developed already in L_1 and because these skills will develop in concert with the E.S.L. student's overall L_2 learning and will be reinforced by the student's motivation and interest in learning to read.

E.S.D. students already speak English and depending on their age may or may not have already learned to read. They may have difficulty, however, with some aspects of standard English that vary from those in their own dialect.

Approaches to Teaching Beginning Reading

When teaching beginning reading to E.S.L./D. students teachers should remember the following:

1. The written symbols represent sounds that the students are not totally familiar with.
2. The word order and sentence structures may be different from those in the students' first language or dialect and may not be fully mastered.
3. The meanings that words carry are not identical in two languages. In two dialects of the same language this may also be the case since meanings are culturally determined.
4. The written form of some languages is read from right to left or in columns from top to bottom.
5. Some languages use characters which represent a word and which cannot be broken down into separate sounds.

The following four approaches to teaching beginning reading are in common use. All are applicable to developing L_2 literacy. Many educators find that an eclectic approach can best meet their students' needs.

Sight or Whole Word Approach

In this approach students discriminate among words, first by visual cues such as the length and shape of words, and then by other cues such as context, pictures, and initial sound. For recall, students rely on visual and auditory memory.

The advantages of this approach are that students build up a core of commonly used words and quickly experience success in reading. The words learned can be based on the students' existing oral vocabulary and can be combined in various sentences by the teacher to give students additional practice both in reading and in the recognition and manipulation of various sentence patterns. This approach allows the teacher to follow the maxim that *initially* E.S.L./D. students should only be asked to read what they can say.

The disadvantages of this approach are that words may be unknown and irrelevant to students if, rather than the students' own vocabulary, the basal reader is used as the sole source of all sight words. The sentences may be too complex; the content may be culturally bound, and this results in poor comprehension in students. Both basal readers and high interest-low vocabulary books have a place in the E.S.L./D. reading program but not in the first few weeks for some students.

Linguistic Approach

In this approach students first learn letter names and associated sounds and then go on to sound combinations (e.g., the CVC pattern of Nat, hat, rat, sat). Regular patterns precede irregular patterns. Comprehension is rarely stressed at the beginning.

An advantage of the linguistic approach is that the consistent, careful control of regular and irregular patterns helps some students to gain confidence in their decoding ability and to develop a sensitivity towards patterns in the language.

A disadvantage of this approach is that an overly rigid control of sound-symbol relations may result in the use of contrived and banal sentences which do not relate to the students' limited knowledge of English, to their past experiences, or, indeed, to their new environment.

Individualized Approach

In this approach students participate in the selection and pacing of reading. Teachers confer with individual students and instruct small groups or individuals as the need for various skills arises.

The advantages of an individualized approach are that students are able to choose books at their respective reading levels, to progress at their own pace, and thus to learn the various reading skills when they need them. Private conferences enable students to spend some time as the centre of the teacher's attention.

Some disadvantages of an individualized approach are that some students from overseas are not accustomed to being given a choice of reading materials or to working on their own and may need constant guidance initially if they are to make any progress. Extensive record keeping is necessary to ensure that important reading skills are not overlooked.

77

Language Experience Approach

This approach proceeds from the realization that language is based on experience. Here, the students' own language and personal experiences are recorded by the teacher, read by the teacher, and eventually read and written by the students. Transfer to materials not authored by the students occurs later.

The advantages of the language experience approach are that it strengthens the association between word forms and meanings and promotes familiarity with sentence patterns. It is highly motivational and enables students, by using their own oral expressions and experiences, to begin working on literacy skills almost from the first day. The language experience approach can be used to lead into other approaches or reading programs which may be used throughout the school. The approach may be used with minimal instruction by classroom assistants or volunteer aides.

The disadvantages of this approach are that it may limit learning to the informational background of the class unless efforts are made through the use of field trips and visual aids to extend students' vocabulary. It may also lead to incidental treatment of reading skills.

The language experience approach to reading and writing is described in detail at the end of the next part of Section V. This material explains how this approach can be used with E.S.L./D. students.

Teaching Beginning Writing

Teaching composition skills to E.S.L./D. students, indeed to any student, is an exciting and challenging process. The methods used will, of course, reflect one's understanding of the writing or composing process both for L_1 and L_2 students. Although detailed theoretical discussion is beyond the scope of a resource book, a frame of reference must be established. The focus throughout this discussion is on writing as a process rather than a product.

"Learning to write is much more than learning to use orthographic symbols." However, some students come from linguistic backgrounds in which a script other than the Roman alphabet is used. Obviously these students, no matter what their age and grade level, need to be taught how to form and use English letters. Nevertheless, such students are not necessarily unfamiliar with the process of writing. Students may generally be either pre-literate, functionally illiterate, or literate in their first language; and this will influence the type of writing program that will be best suited to their needs.

Selected Techniques for Teaching Writing to E.S.L./D. Students

Language Experience Approach

As with reading, the language experience approach to writing is based on the belief that writing is fundamental to the communication process. It is perhaps the most natural way of introducing students to written composition.

In this approach the background language and experiences of the students form the starting point from which the process of composing develops. It is unnecessary to wait until students have mastered the handwriting and spelling skills of English before they participate in this activity. In the beginning, the teacher can record what students say either individually or collectively.

This technique lends itself to the progressive development of the stages of writing, drafting, editing, and publishing, and uses topics relevant to the students' interests. Talk between student and teacher or between student and student precedes the actual writing and helps students organize and clarify their thoughts. When the students are ready to dictate or write stories, they have already selected what they want to say from their own experience and have, to a certain extent, arranged their thoughts in sequence.

As the students read, listen to, and perhaps share with others what they have written, the process of editing begins naturally and easily. The connection between their spoken words and their written representation becomes evident. With the second, third, and fourth reading, students begin to refine, change, and correct their own work. When they are ready to publish their work, students will have done all the editing meaningful to it at that time. Further work may be done at a later stage of development.

79

In this kind of writing students respond spontaneously to the "I-centred" approach. Their initial audience is "self." However, as they improve in their ability to communicate in writing they will want to use language to "get things done." The transition to transactional or poetic writing therefore evolves naturally as the student begins to change focus from "I" to "you" to "it" and from the concrete to the abstract.

For example, the experience of collecting spider webs on black construction paper and then observing and discussing them motivates students to write expressively about this experience. During the editing stage, students will react in different ways to their own writing. Some may find that they wish to explore the spider from a scientific point of view and so will adopt a transactional mode; some may find the beginnings of a poem or story within the expressive draft and so will adopt a poetic mode. The degree of independence with which students are able to change modes will, of course, depend on their control of written English, on the intensity of their interest, and on the complexity of their ideas. Some students may require continued group support.

At the end of this part of Section V the language experience approach to reading and writing is described in detail. This material explains how this approach can be used with E.S.L./D. students.

Intensive Writing

Intensive writing is an approach for encouraging free, personal writing among students. Emotion, brevity, simplicity, and honesty of written expression are stressed, and spontaneous individuality is sought. To observe, to feel, and to think for oneself — these are the essential skills. A direct experience or a vicarious stimulus provokes an immediate and honest emotional response, and students translate their response to the process of writing. Teachers may provide some control over form and content, however, particularly at the beginning stages of the program when students may view writing as an arduous or irrelevant activity. One example is the spider stimulus. The teacher, quite unexpectedly, reacts to the presence of a spider (real or imaginary) in the classroom and urges the students to write their immediate reactions. "Make it brief and snappy — don't stop to think just write what you feel."[2] On the next line the students describe the spider's body as each one sees it. The next line is to contain three adjectives describing the spider's legs. Then the web is described, and a final sentence rounds off the expressive passage. The following is a sample of student writing:

> Spiders are horrible and ugly, the very thought of them
> sends shivers down my spine.
> This one has a bloated body, black and brown,
> Its legs are long and spindly and fine,
> The web is beautiful, dew-spangled, delicate,
> But it is a trap.
> The fly, though small, fights frantically, fiercely.[3]
>
> Janet Stainer,
> Secondary school student

As the students become comfortable with the idea of responding spontaneously in writing and as their written fluency in English increases, the teacher's control of form and content can gradually be decreased.

Intensive writing, as its name implies, seeks to tap the intensity of students' thoughts and feelings. It is a simple and direct technique for dissolving inhibitions toward writing, for releasing the flow of ideas, and for stimulating the desire to express these ideas in written form.

Controlled Composition

This is a technique which can be used to teach students the correct language forms at both the sentence and paragraph level. Students are presented with a written model and given instructions to manipulate the model in some specific way. There is control both within the model and within the type of manipulation required.

The purpose of this mechanistic approach to writing is to minimize student frustration with the written forms of language and to build confidence in students by enabling them to produce "correct" written language. The advantages are that students are forced to focus attention on the specific features of language, are able to proceed from mechanical to communicative exercises or from complete control to no control, can practise writing acceptable models, and will become aware of their grammatical difficulties and be provided with specific exercises to help overcome them.

The following samples of writing exercises are arranged in order from rigid or complete control to semi-control to free composition.

Complete Control

Copying: For students who are not familiar with the Roman alphabet, copying is a valid activity for practising letter, word, and sentence formation. Copying also teaches them directionality and the use of lines as reference points for letters.

Substitution: The student is given a model and asked to write sentences using the elements below.

Two of our sons My uncle Tom and his father	went to	England the store college a restaurant	last year a week ago yesterday two months ago

Students will produce correct sentences if they follow instructions. There is a danger, however, that they may not comprehend meaning in completely controlled exercises. Teachers should make sure that students do understand all that they write. Rigid controls should be used briefly and at the beginning level only.

Semi-Control

In this activity the information for the correct response is supplied by the model. Now, however, the student must choose an appropriate answer. A correct response indicates comprehension.

He	travelled by	car	because	she	were in a hurry
Mary		plane		he	could not afford the plane
They		bus		they	needed exercise
		train			did not like driving
		bicycle			prefer a leisurely trip

Gradually, the controls are decreased so that the model supplies only the content and the student must supply the language forms. (e.g., "Last year, I visited my sister in Hong Kong. . . ." Add three sentences to complete the paragraph.)

The goal in using controlled composition is to give students maximum practice and feedback in using language forms in context. The technique is helpful for students but should be used in conjunction with other techniques.

Free Composition

Even at beginning levels E.S.L./D. students should have the opportunity for writing freely. All students need to express their feelings, to communicate their thoughts on paper, and to discover that they can write.

> A high level of written expression is difficult to attain in a foreign language. It cannot be achieved by chance, as a kind of by-product of other language activities, although it draws on what has been learned in these areas. Good writing implies a knowledge of the conventions of the written code (the good manners of the medium); to be effective, it needs the precision and nuances which derive from a thorough understanding of the syntactical and lexical choices the language offers; to be interesting, it requires the ability to vary structures and patterns for rhetorical effect.[4]

Language Experience Approach

Definition

The language experience approach is based on the belief that reading is an integral part of the communication process, an inseparable part of full language development in cultures with a written system, a "thinking, not a parrotting, process."[5] The reader must be able to compare, infer, predict, and evaluate as well as decode symbols. It is an approach which perhaps more than any other accepts that language is experience-based, and that learning to read is therefore an extension of the student's language and experiences.

The language-experience approach is self-defining. The language and the experiences of the student become the working material in the *initial* stages of the process of learning to read. This approach is based on the following premises:

1. what students think about they can talk about
2. what they can talk about can be written (by teacher or student)
3. what has been written can be read by self or others[6]

The objectives of the approach, which reflect the importance of the student as the central focus, are as follows:

— to release and use the knowledge and interests already inside each student

— to instil in students both the ability to read and the desire to be readers

— to accept each student's oral language and to recognize that the phonological, syntactical, and semantic competencies which he or she has developed, whether in standard dialect or not, can be applied in the reading process

— to maximize "the correspondence between the printed word and the student's language"[7]

— to develop reading skills as integral parts of the total language development (i.e., all skills are emphasized equally)

Procedure

1. The student chooses an experience that he or she wishes to share. It may be a drawing, an object from home, a favorite story or film, a family event, or a class activity such as a field trip.
2. The student is asked to share orally his or her experience with a small group or with the teacher. As the student is talking the teacher may want to jot down the main ideas for later discussion.
3. The student dictates his or her story to the teacher who writes it down verbatim. The teacher may help the student by asking questions that prompt information flow or may help the student find an appropriate word, but the teacher must not correct or change in any way the utterances of the student. "It is crucial that the dictation be written down just as the student says it, that the student's (not the teacher's) words, phrasing, syntax be written down."[8] For many teachers this is

the most difficult aspect to accept, but to edit or repair the student's story at this point is not helpful. At later stages of the procedure the student can be assisted with editing skills and be encouraged to correct his or her own work.

4. The student then follows along as the teacher reads his or her story aloud. This helps the student relate immediately the spoken form to the written form of his or her message. It also provides a fluency model.
5. The student, if ready, can read the passage orally to the group and/or the teacher. If he or she is not ready to read the whole passage, the teacher can use this time to develop word recognition skills (e.g., initial or final consonants, words that are the same or are different, and words that occur often), to help with pronunciation, or to practise individual sentence patterns.
6. The student reads the story aloud to the teacher or to another student. The student knows the words and the story because he or she has dictated it. The task now is to relate the written symbols to the spoken language. The student should be encouraged to reread the story often.
7. Depending upon his or her age and grade level, the student may now be ready to write the story. It is at this point that self-correction often begins. As their vocabulary increases and their communication skills develop, students begin to recognize discrepancies and become critical of their own work.
8. Stories that the students are satisfied with can be made into booklets which will become their "readers." They may want to illustrate their stories with drawings or diagrams.
9. Students should be encouraged to share with families and friends what they have written. As students read and enjoy each other's work they will begin to realize that books contain what authors want to say to readers. Thus the transition to other reading material such as a basal reader, a story book, or a text book is begun. Because of the personal experience component, journal and letter writing provide good transitional writing activities which may be continued indefinitely.
10. The classroom resources are an important part of this approach to reading. Various kinds of experience charts that are composed by the student and are relevant to the needs and interests of the students should be displayed prominently and used often. Daily activities could include a discussion of the weather, for example. Students respond to questions by relating what they see to the chart. Newspaper weather charts are particularly useful for older students. The variety is endless: experience charts can be used to teach students to categorize material or to note main ideas; calendars can easily be used for teaching days, dates, weeks, months, and years; word charts can be used to build student vocabulary (e.g., word families, word of the week, similes, homonyms, antonyms); maps of the world, of the town or city, of the province, of Canada as well as seasonal, multicultural holiday charts also help students in their approach to reading.

As student "readers" are completed they are placed on the library table for all to share. Simple books from the school library can now be added to this collection.

Group projects and field trips can culminate in a "book" that has been compiled by the whole class. For example, one group of elementary E.S.L. students recorded a nutrition

experiment with white rats. The record was shared with all the students in the school. Another group of secondary E.S.L. students produced a booklet on "Government in B.C." which incuded an account of their visits to the legislature in Victoria.

From the foregoing examples it will be evident that this approach to reading offers scope not only in language arts or English but in every subject area. For example, in physical education students make up a game. They write the description and the rules of the game before teaching it to a group of their peers. Much editing takes place before the rules are used again. In science, students write up a science experiment. The copy is given to another group of students who have not done the experiment. Using the descriptions as a guide, the students try to do the experiment.

Key Vocabulary Technique

An important component of the language experience approach is the technique of "key vocabulary," which is used to develop essential word recognition skills.

The key vocabulary technique starts with words that are significant to the student rather than with words deemed significant by educators or writers of basal programs. It is "in this dynamic material, within the familiarity and security of it" that each student discovers the intense personal meaning of words, "from which cannot help but arise a love of reading. For it's here, right in this first word, that the love of reading is born."[9]

The basic procedure for using this simple but effective technique is as follows:

1. Obtain and accept from each student his or her key word for the day.
2. Print or write this word on a card. The cards must be durable as students will keep them in their personal word bank file and will refer to them frequently for various activities.
3. Have the students trace the printed word with their finger. This reinforces kinesthetically an awareness of form and directionality.
4. Have the student use the key word orally and visually. (e.g., After saying the word, talking about its meaning, and using it orally in a sentence, the student may draw a picture relating to it, copy it on the blackboard or in his or her own notebook, tape a brief story about it, find it in a magazine or book, etc.)
5. Check the students' retention and recognition skills by having them read their key vocabulary during the next few days. Students often enjoy sharing their key vocabulary in small groups and, in such settings, some students frequently and spontaneously design their own word analysis games. (e.g., classifying the words by initial letters, final letters, by sounds, by common roots, similar meanings, or similar functions)

Where such spontaneity is not forthcoming, the teacher guides the students, individually and in groups, in the analysis of their key words. These are the words with which the teacher initiates phonetic analysis and other "word attack" skills. Students learn to use phonetic, structural, and contextual clues by working with their own significant words, with those of their classmates, and then with the words of others.

This technique lends itself readily to a cultural sharing of words as the teacher begins a bank of words in the students' native languages.

Error Analysis

E.S.L. students will, while learning their new language, make errors in both oral and written English, just as E.S.D. students will produce forms which differ from the standard dialect as they learn an additional variation of English.

The study of learner errors/differences can be an effective diagnostic technique for teachers, revealing something of the nature of the learner's knowledge of standard English, what systems each learner has internalized, and whether or not the learner is continuing to move closer to standard usage.

The emphasis is on the positive nature of differing forms as indicators of progress in second language/dialect acquisition. For example, the E.S.L. student who says "goed" instead of "went" shows an understanding that English has a system for marking the past tense, that the regular rule is verb + *ed*. An E.S.D. student may produce that same form (i.e., "goed") because it is a grammatical feature of his dialect, originally caused by over-generalization. These students are ready to learn some of the irregular forms of the past tense.

The following list gives some of the causes for differing linguistic forms. The list is by no means definitive.

Interference: Errors/differences are caused by the transfer of a feature from the native to the target language/dialect. For example, some E.S.L. students make no distinction between "l" and "r" because none exists in their home language. That is, they may say and write "led" for "red" and "play" for "pray."

Overgeneralization: Errors/differences are caused by the misapplication of a target language/dialect rule as in "she telled."

Incomplete Mastery (or Markers of Transitional Competence): Errors/differences of this type are developmental in nature. Some overgeneralizations are markers of transitional competence. These errors/differences are similar to those made by children acquiring standard English as their home language. For example, first language learners often produce utterances which sound "telegraphic" because words are left out. Second language/dialect learners produce similar utterances. (e.g., he smiling)

Strategies of Communication and Assimilation: Errors/differences are caused by the attempts to communicate without sufficient mastery of the appropriate grammatical forms of standard English. (e.g., "How much costs this?" "I don't gots to.")

Teacher-induced Errors: These are errors resulting from pedagogical procedures that are either in the text or are employed by the teacher. For example, when first teaching the present continuous tense, teachers and texts may over-use the time marker "now" as in "I am leaving now." If other time markers such as "today," or "in ten minutes" are not also introduced, students will assume they must use the word "now" whenever they use the present continuous tense. They may also overlook the fact that in English the present continuous can be used to indicate future time. (e.g., "I am leaving for Europe at 3:00 p.m. tomorrow.")

An important student strategy which should be considered when studying learner error/difterences is avoidance. Avoidance may be teacher or program induced, or it may result from an overly cautious approach to learning. Students may appear to be making progress because few errors/differences occur in their speech or written work. By using only those elements of standard English that they know are "correct," by avoiding grammatical, lexical, or phonological elements of which they are uncertain, or by refusing to take risks in using the language, they are restricting their own progress. On the other hand, students who are making several errors may, in fact, be progressing well in the development of communicative competence. In their desire to communicate in the new language, they guess, try out new ways of expressing themselves, and are not afraid to make mistakes.

By systematically analysing learner errors/differences, teachers can isolate those features of standard English not yet learned, those being learned, and those already learned. Such analysis also provides feedback on the effectiveness of teaching materials and techniques and information useful in designing a remediation or reteaching program when one is considered necessary.

In summary, there are basically two kinds of errors/differences.

Surface Errors: The learner adds, omits, substitutes, or mis-orders an element. (e.g., "How I can you help?")

Contextual Errors: The learner produces an utterance which, while grammatically correct, is inappropriate for the situation. (e.g., The chairperson of a formal meeting addressing the group: "I'd like a consensus from you guys.") Alternatively, the learner produces an utterance which appears to be grammatically correct but which is, in fact, incorrect in the context actually intended by the speaker. (e.g., "I want to know the French" becomes erroneous in the context of wanting to learn the language. The statement should be "I want to know French.")

Error Analysis is done on three levels of complexity.

1. The teacher categorizes errors/differences as (a) omission, (b) addition, (c) selection (substitution) or (d) mis-ordering. These are surface errors.
2. The teacher assigns to the error/difference a linguistic category such as (a) orthographic, (b) phonological, (c) syntactic, or (d) lexical-semantic.
3. The teacher attempts to find a possible reason for error/difference in terms of grammatical relationships and/or underlying rules of language.

The following chart is provided as a guide for teachers wishing to use error analysis as a diagnostic tool. The study of learner errors in context seeks not to measure second language/dialect knowledge but rather to examine the quality of communicative competence and thus avoid the problem of bias which is demonstrated in standardized tests (see Part 3, Section III under the heading "Standardized Tests and E.S.L./D. Students.") A teacher's understanding of the nature and causes of errors/differences and his or her attitude to them may have a profound effect on the progress and motivation of the E.S.L./D. student.

ERROR CATEGORIZATION CHART			
EXAMPLE OF ERROR	TYPE OF ERROR	POSSIBLE REASONS	SOME SUGGESTED REMEDIES
a) You come my house	Syntactical/Omission	1) first language interference (different prepositional system) 2) no mastery of English prepositional system	1) Reteach prepositions of location, using concrete examples, manipulation of objects, demonstration, and illustrations.
b) You come at my house	Lexical/Substitution	1) first language interference 2) incomplete mastery of English prepositional system	1) Contrast the meaning of "at" and "to" in contextual examples to demonstrate the movement implied by "to" (e.g., "You can come to my house") and the stasis implied by "at" (e.g., "You are at my house").
c) I am in the trouble	Syntactical/Addition	1) overgeneralization of the English system of articles 2) incomplete mastery of English idioms	1) Use Cloze procedure to practise when to use articles and when to omit them. 2) Use Language Master cards to practise appropriate idioms. (e.g., "I am in trouble." "I am in the soup.")
d) She is my brother	Lexical/Substitution (or Selection)	1) no gender distinction in native pronoun system	1) Use illustrated cards showing she (sister, mother) and he (brother, father, man). (May use with Language Master too.) 2) Match pictures to word cards for he, she, and it.
e) I made him to do it	Syntactical/Addition	1) incomplete mastery 2) first language interference	1) Categorize verbs that are followed by the infinitive form with "to" (e.g., "I asked him to do it") and those that are not (e.g., "I made him do it"). 2) Provide much practice in isolation and in context.
f) He is interesting in that book	Lexical/Contextual	1) incomplete mastery	1) Provide situations in which students can see the contrast between "He is interested in something" and "He is interesting to someone." 2) Expose students to other situations for transfer and practice of this item.

ERROR CATEGORIZATION CHART			
EXAMPLE OF ERROR	TYPE OF ERROR	POSSIBLE REASONS	SOME SUGGESTED REMEDIES
g) Dat is dat	Phonemic/Substitution	1) first language interference: as there is no "th" sound in their native language, students substitute the closest sound from their systems	1) Demonstrate how the "th" sounds are formed. 2) Have students practise in front of a mirror. 3) Use Language Master cards to listen to and produce the sounds in isolation and in context (words and sentences).
h) I with little brother go to school yesterday	Syntactical/ Mis-ordering	1) incomplete mastery of English word order 2) incomplete mastery of redundant markers in English tense 3) first language interference due to lack of past tense verb form in native language	1) Use pictures to practise compound subjects. (e.g., "Marie and her little brother . . .") 2) Use language experience approach. (e.g., "What did we do yesterday? Yesterday we . . .")
i) I came last year over	Syntactical/ Mis-ordering	1) incomplete mastery of English word order 2) interference from native language which may have a system of post-positions for adverbs	1) Practise word order using columns for building sentences. I / came over / last year The tree / fell down / in the storm Marie / went there / before dinner 2) Practise "what" and "where" questions.
j) You son which year born?	1) Syntactical/ Omission (no possessive, no preposition, no verb) 2) Inverted Word Order	1) incomplete mastery of English word order for questions 2) interference from native language which may have no possessive forms and no verb "to be"	1) Have students arrange flash cards in correct order (one word on each card): "son," "born," "which," "was," "year," "in," and "your." 2) Use items of clothing to practise use of possessives. (e.g., "your sweater," "my blouse")

89

Miscue Analysis

Miscue analysis is a technique used to determine the nature of a learner's reading knowledge. The data studied are those errors or miscues made by a student reading aloud.

A miscue is "an observed oral response which the researcher (teacher) hears which does not conform to what is expected."[10] (e.g., what appears on the printed page) A detailed analysis of reading miscues can reveal how readers use the linguistic information available to them, what their personal strengths and weaknesses in reading are, what personal resources they use, and at which points the reading process breaks down.[11]

Procedure

In a non-threatening environment each student reads a passage (minimum of 400 words) from a story he or she has not previously seen. The teacher tapes the reading performance for later analysis. Each miscue is marked on a transcript of the passage, either while the student is reading or from the tape at a later time. Working from the tape is less distracting to the student but is more time-consuming for the teacher. The teacher or examiner should avoid giving the readers any help since the ways in which students attempt to solve their own reading problems can offer important insights. Immediately following the oral reading, each student is asked as a means of comprehension to retell the story in his or her own words.

SAMPLE MISCUE ANALYSIS CHART		
EXPECTED RESPONSE	OBSERVED RESPONSE	MISCUE CATEGORY
They saved the men.	They saved the man.	Substitution
"Help!" he called.	"Help!" his call	Substitution/ Omission
We floated out on the raft.	We float out raft	Omission
. . . on the cliffs	. . . on the cliff	Omission
They tied the oil drums.	They tied to the oil drums	Insertion
He ran home.	He ran to home.	Insertion
Can we take . . .	We can take . . .	Reversal
. . . so am I	. . . so I am	Reversal

Regressions also occur but are considered to be strategies for self-correcting or for checking context, not actual miscues. Students also repeat words and phrases when no miscue has occurred. This may be a kind of rehearsal strategy in which the reader repeats a known entity thus allowing himself time to process something linguistically difficult that follows the known entity. (e.g., "Bill lived in a house *on the on the* cliffs.") Alternatively, the student may rehearse the difficult vocabulary item itself.

The teacher, by using strategies similar to those suggested in the preceding Error Categorization Chart will be able to focus the student's attention on specific miscues.

Bridge Objectives

Communicative competence, or the ability to use the language appropriate to the situation, is the principal objective of second language teaching and of language support programs. The process of education that leads an E.S.L./D. student toward communicative competence involves an initial orientation and an assessment of his or her language levels and needs (see Section II of this book), the placement of the student in a language support program if one is deemed necessary (see Section III), and finally the tailoring of the language support programs to the student's individual needs.

Because the knowledge and experience of all students varies widely, each student starts at a different point in any given process. E.S.L./D. students may differ from their English speaking peers in terms of the four basic language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In their native languages, E.S.L. students may be pre-literate, functionally illiterate, or fully literate, and this will influence the type of language support program that will best suit their educative needs. Students literate in their first language need to learn how to transfer their skills in reading and writing into a new language system, for example; whereas pre-literate students require positive reinforcement of their oral language skills in a sequential pre-reading and writing program that guarantees their continual success (see Parts 2, 3 and 4 of Section V).

Bridge objectives are designed to move students who require language support from their present knowledge and understanding of English language skills to the point where they can function comfortably within the expected range of their peers. Students requiring language support are not removed from the regular curriculum, for such a step is considered both discriminatory and unnecessary. Thus curriculum objectives, as described in the curriculum guides made available for every subject by the Ministry of Education, apply equally to all students. Although students who require language support will require assistance in achieving the curriculum objectives in language skills that apply to their age and grade level, they can achieve these curriculum objectives with the help of bridge objectives.

Developing Bridge Objectives

To "bridge the gap" between the levels of language competence defined in a given curriculum objective and the level of language skill at which an E.S.L./D. student is presently operating, teachers must define what "readiness skills" must be developed in the student for him or her to function within the expected range of the peer group. In other words, teachers must identify which of the language skills should be given the student's immediate attention and then must get the student working directly on the development of those skills. This means that the teacher and all students in a classroom work together toward a shared, articulated objective — the curriculum or terminal objective as defined in the curriculum guide that pertains to the subject and grade level — and thus all students will share in a sense of purpose and achievement. The whole of language cannot be taught or learned, but the language that is needed to function in the environment is within reach.

Using the Language Skills Chart

The following chart has been developed as a guide and a checklist to help teachers identify the English language abilities of their students. This identification is the first step in determining bridge objectives.

To assess a student's language competency, place a checkmark against each level of all four of the basic language skills — listening, speaking, reading, and writing — that the student has mastered and also against the level of cultural integration that he or she exhibits. Although these skills have been listed vertically in the order in which students usually acquire them, various factors may result in a student acquiring a skill that on the chart comes later in the learning process before he or she acquires a skill that on the chart comes earlier. For example, a student may understand basic sentence patterns but have difficulty in sound discrimination — this is the case of Sam Wong, the student used later in this part of the book as an example for developing bridge objectives — though readers will note that in the Listening column of the Language Skills Chart, the latter skill is listed above the former.

The chart should not be read horizontally; this would imply that there are fixed stages in language learning. But some students will be further ahead in listening and speaking than in reading and writing while others who come from an educational system that stresses the written language may lack listening and speaking skills.

LANGUAGE SKILLS CHART

LISTENING	SPEAKING	READING	WRITING	CULTURAL INTEGRATION
Listens to the sound of English (e.g., greetings, survival English)	Imitates basic sentence patterns	Reads labels on concrete objects in classroom	Traces and draws lines, shapes, objects, etc., to experience left to right direction, letter formation, etc.	Introduces self and gives greeting in native language
Discriminates between sounds in isolation and context	Responds to greetings, questions (e.g., date, time, weather)	Recognizes visual representations of daily expressions by flash cards, charts, blackboard (e.g., "Today is Monday, Sept. 5, The weather is cloudy.")	Draws freehand	Uses different greetings and farewells in English (e.g., "Good-morning," "Hi," "Hello," "See you soon," "Good-bye," etc.); uses gestures which accompany introductions/greetings in English
Identifies individual sounds in isolation and in context	Asks questions relating to needs; imitates phonemes produced by teacher in isolation and in context; discriminates and reproduces pairs of phonemes in isolation (e.g., /i/I,/I/I/) and in context (e.g., "beat," "bit")	Recognizes the alphabet (upper and lower case); relates the phonemes to the graphemes; identifies and discriminates consonants and vowels; decodes words	Traces and/or copies alphabet (upper and lower case); copies own name	Teaches other students greetings/farewells in native language; writes other students' names in native language to demonstrate writing system
Understands and responds to basic sentence patterns, directions, questions, requests	Verbally labels objects, actions, pictures, charts, etc. Counts (e.g., objects, days of week, students, syllables, etc.)	Reads information relating to self (e.g., "My name is . . ." "I am . . . . years old." "I have three brothers and two sisters." "I live at . . . ." "My phone number is . . ." etc.)	Copies names of concrete objects Copies daily expressions	
Recognizes and understands concrete vocabulary of the classroom, the school, the home, the community	Understands and uses words for concepts that relate to his or her immediate environment	Reads own printing or cursive writing; reads words aloud using correct stress; reads with understanding words in context	Labels objects and pictures in classroom	

94

LANGUAGE SKILLS CHART

LISTENING	SPEAKING	READING	WRITING	CULTURAL INTEGRATION
Shows awareness of the rhythm of the language by clapping, beating, counting; takes part in contextual listening, (e.g., in spontaneous situations)	Expresses concepts orally in meaningful contexts using appropriate stress and intonation; uses concrete vocabulary for identifying, classifying and categorizing; understands and uses vocabulary for reclassifying and recategorizing concepts already learned in L1	Reads sentences fluently; reads from a large chart own account of a shared experience (e.g., a visit to a supermarket, a park, a school library); reads passages fluently; reads own and others' experience stories	Takes simple dictation; writes out information relating to self by supplying appropriate word for sentence patterns provided (e.g., "My name is . . .") answers questions about his own account of a shared experience; rewrites passage by substitution (e.g., tense change); writes questions on a passage read	Interacts with visitors to the classroom (school personnel, volunteers, guests); compares calendars; shares food
Takes part in role play; illustrates words and gestures	Retells a personal experience and later a short story; uses language suitable to purpose to make a request, state a fact, accept an invitation, ask a question, etc.	Reads dialogues, short stories, and plays	Writes a journal using controlled model	Shares folk tales and songs from heritage
Identifes a missing word/line	Describes a picture		Writes simple sentences about a given picture, family photograph, etc.	Shares family life activities by using photo albums
Substitutes words in patterns so that comprehension and vocabulary can develop simultaneously by analogy				Shares ancestral costumes, national holidays
Listens to tapes, radio, films, videos, guest speakers	Uses the skills of reporting, describing, narrating, interpreting; reproduces main ideas and supporting details in own words	Interprets and comprehends reading passages, film strips, television presentations, etc.	Writes a reply to a letter; writes an outline for an experience, story, or picture, video film, or oral presentation; takes notes for different purposes	Shares universal commonalties such as telling time, domestic animals, growing food, calendars, seasons
	Interprets material through contrasting and comparing new environment to native culture; uses language to interact freely in any social situation	Reads and appreciates different forms of writing — stories, poems, plays, documentaries, explanations	Writes a short paragraph, letter, an experience, a story, a rhyme; writes a dialogue; writes reports, experiments, and essays; proofreads to improve word choice, sentence structure, and organization	Shares national art/customs Total integration of two cultures; cross-cultural understanding

Communicative Competence: The ability to use all four language skills appropriately in any situation

95

Determining Bridge Objectives

Once teachers have used the Language Skills Chart to determine an E.S.L./D. student's language level, the next step in developing bridge objectives can be taken: determining where a student should be in relation to the peer group. To do this, elementary teachers will consult the Scope and Sequence Chart in the *Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide* and secondary teachers will consult both the elementary chart and the English 8-12 Scope and Sequence Chart. Secondary teachers should consult both charts in order to ensure that important language skills are not overlooked. When teachers have found the goals and expected learning outcomes or terminal objectives that apply to the student's peer group and have compared them to the student's present competency levels in English, they can then take the third and final step in determining bridge objectives: deciding what specific readiness skills the student will need to "bridge the gap" between the two. Since many of the concepts of the four basic language skills may already be developed in the E.S.L./D. student, in which case they need only be transferred into the new language system, these readiness skills can develop very quickly.

Bridge Objectives for a Hypothetical E.S.L. Student

The following example demonstrates the use of bridge objectives in addressing the needs of one hypothetical student. Teachers will find that this example serves as a model from which the process of developing bridge objectives can be inferred.

1. Where is the student now situated in second language acquisition?

Sam Wong, age 10, has just arrived from Paraguay. He speaks German as a first language but is also fluent in Cantonese. In his oral interview (see "Prototype Oral Interview," Part 4, Section II) he was able to answer questions from Section A in intelligible English although he had some difficulties with pronunciation (e.g., "tree" for "three"; "Fancouber" for "Vancouver"). In Section B of the test, however, he became confused and seemed reluctant to answer, and so the test was terminated. Sam cannot read or write in English although he does have these skills in both German and Chinese.

Sam's teacher consults the Language Skills Chart and finds:

Listening: Sam can understand and respond to the basic question patterns that refer to himself but has difficulty with sound discrimination and with sentence patterns that vary from the "wh" question form.

Speaking: Sam can respond to simple questions but cannot ask them. He also has difficulty imitating some sounds.

Reading: Sam can read German well and Chinese fairly well but is entirely unable to read English. He is therefore familiar with the Roman alphabet and the reading process.

Writing: Sam can write well in German and fairly well in Chinese but is unable to write in English.

2. Where should the student be in relation to the peer group?

Sam has attended school in his native country for four years. According to his age, he should be in grade 5. His teacher therefore consults the Scope and Sequence Chart found in the Ministry of Education's *Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide* to see what language skills Sam's peer group is assumed to have.

It seems that Sam is a beginner in English although he can already use two other languages. He will be able to transfer some concepts from L_1 to L_2 but will need new vocabulary to express them. The sounds, the intonation, the structure, and the vocabulary he needs to function in grade 5 will have to be organized systematically. The Communication Skills Chart found in the *Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide* lists the learning outcomes for his age group in all four language skills.

3. What skills must be developed to bridge the gap?

The readiness skills listed on the Language Skills Chart should be taught cyclically and as quickly as possible since Sam needs a base of language and experience that allows him to function in the classroom, the school, and the community. As soon as he can understand and use orally the language for common objects such as books, pencils, and desks and also the language of classroom routines (e.g., "What's the date today?"), his teacher can present to him the written representation of these objects and statements of classroom routine. (e.g., "This is a desk.") Thus Sam will begin to read, not just to decode, because the written symbol and its meaning have been shown to be associated.

Bridge Objectives Chart

The following chart presents in the right-hand column a series of bridge objectives designed to move a student from where he or she is in the four language skills to a point where he or she can function comfortably within the peer group and can meet the curriculum objectives, listed in the left-hand column of this chart, that pertain to the student's peer group. These curriculum objectives are from Goal 12 of the *Elementary Language Arts Curriculum Guide,* which is written at the top of this chart.

"The Language Arts Program should develop the skills of Reading Comprehension."	
CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES	BRIDGE OBJECTIVES
1. Literal Skills:	Bridge to literal skills by using the language experience approach to help the student begin reading. The student will dictate to the teacher his or her account of an experience or of a picture or drawing.
Locate, recognize, and recall main ideas, supporting details, and sequence,	The student will decide on a title for his or her story and will identify two or three things he or she wants to say about the story's main idea. The student will then arrange the events and ideas in order of their occurrence or importance (sequence).
Likenesses and differences,	Although the student will learn the concept of likeness and difference in the beginning stage of learning English, the written representation of this (i.e., comparison) may be avoided by him or her unless some specific teaching and encouragement is given. This is because the language the student needs requires clausal construction. (e.g., "The apple and the orange are the same size, but the banana is long and narrow.")
and cause and effect relation.	Again, the language needed to express the concept tends to be complex. In the hierarchy of "wh-" questions "why" is the most difficult and requires a relative clause construction to answer. (e.g., "Why are you late?" "*I'm late* because I slept in.") Even more complex is the cause-effect relation in "If I sleep in, I will be late." or "As (since) I slept in, I was late."

CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES	BRIDGE OBJECTIVES
2. Inferential Skills: Be able to infer i) main idea	As students progress in organic reading, they will begin to share each others' work. In the discussion that follows such activity, students can be asked "What is the story about?" "Can you suggest a title?" and "Do you think the title is a good one?"
ii) supporting details iii) sequence iv) likenesses and differences v) cause and effect relationships	ii, iii, iv, v, can be dealt with similarly.
3. Critical Skills: Apply critical reading skills to make judgement of	Students begin to develop critical skills as they work with their own and with each others' language experience stories; as they use them for vocabulary building, word appreciation, structure drill, and discussion; and as they share them with the teacher and with other students.
bias, fact, opinion, reality, or fantasy,	Is that true? Did that really happen?
worth and desirability,	Which story do you like best? Why?
and appropriateness to the student's purpose and reading ability.	Is the story interesting to read?
Evaluate the author's presentation in terms of the author's purpose and the author's choice of language and material.	Why did the student (the author) write the story? Pick out the words, phrases, or sentences you like best. Why do you like them? Would another word be better? Why?
4. Appreciative Skills: Appreciate reading selections by understanding and responding to the author's use of language, content, characters, and incidents.	When students have produced "readers" to share with others, their appreciative skills begin to develop. Students read and discuss what "the author" has to say and "how" he says it. At first the authors will be fellow students but students will quickly extend their interests to include other reading material. The target material is that used in the regular classroom.

Language Across the Curriculum

This part of Section V presents information on the *methods* of teaching regular curriculum classes that contain some students who require language support. Some specific *resources* available to teachers who have E.S.L./D. students in their classrooms are given in Section VI of this book.

Students who do not understand the language of instruction find classroom experiences incomprehensible. When an emigrating student's education has been interrupted, further learning in content areas that are familiar to all students (e.g., mathematics) often ceases until some English has been mastered. If a student speaks a non-standard dialect of English rather than another language, he may superficially understand some of the words and structures in content classrooms but not necessarily the referents or the assumptions that are specific to the culture. Communication does not take place unless there is shared knowledge and experience. (e.g., "He ran for the elevator" would have no meaning if the concept of elevator had not been experienced however vicariously.)

E.S.L. students, particularly adolescents, feel that they are in an educational vacuum if they cannot participate in content areas. On the other hand, they often feel that because they are not continuing with their education in subject areas such as mathematics, science, and social studies, they are wasting their time in an E.S.L. classroom where the total emphasis is on language acquisition. In many schools, this problem is circumvented by integrating E.S.L. students almost immediately into selected content classes in which language is supported by visual aids and by situations that illustrate meaning. In other words, even students who understand very little English can participate with their peers in classes such as physical education, art, and music. And if E.S.L. students have studied the subject of other content areas in their native countries, they can also be placed immediately in these classes. In this case their task is to transfer the concepts they have already acquired into new vocabulary and structure.

A progression of integration into content areas may take place as follows:

— subjects where the demand for English is supported by visible situations

— subjects where the content is familiar due to previous study

— subjects where the content is new and requires some ability to communicate in oral and written English

It is assumed that E.S.L. students will receive continuous support in their acquisition of English during this process.

E.S.D. students are most properly integrated from the beginning. Their first language is English although their dialect is a variant of the language of instruction. It is very important, however, that E.S.D. students, because of their different linguistic and cultural

background, receive specific attention and support to

— encourage the addition of the standard dialect,

— monitor comprehension;

— provide positive psychological support until students feel comfortable in both dialects.

Successful communication in any classroom is the result of careful thought and planning. All students understand and remember material they have experienced, worked with, and applied. Teaching strategies that encourage practical involvement will minimize discrepancies among students in reading and oral and written expression but will maximize the potential for shared experience, for positive self-concept, and for cognitive growth. Thus the student who is still in the process of developing his or her language skills to the level of the peer group is not denied the opportunity to grow and contribute intellectually at the level of his or her capability.

There are various things teachers can do to make communication with their students clearer and easier. One obvious but very flexible technique is the use of visual aids, particularly charts and diagrams. The teacher can use visual aids to present information to the students or the students can use them to present information to the teacher. Charts and diagrams give students who have language difficulties a chance to keep up with the content without being blocked by an impenetrable language barrier. They can also be used as supports or springboards for speaking or writing. Another advantage of charts and diagrams is that they clarify the structure of content which helps all students understand the structure of the subject area.

For example, classification (dividing things into groups) is a simple process which occurs in most subject areas. Comprehension is aided by use of a visual chart:

Material	Colour	Texture	Location
Sand	yellow	fine	river bed

The student can then answer information questions such as "What colour is the sand?" Eventually he or she can "read" the chart expressing the meaning which he or she has internalized in the appropriate linguistic forms. (e.g., "Fine yellow sand is found in the river bed.")

One of the goals of every teacher is to encourage students to think about the information they are learning; that is, to comprehend data, to manipulate and organize data, to make inferences, to synthesize, to contrast, and to compare. A classification chart can be used to accomplish all these goals. Other types of charts — tables of cause and effect, for example — may be used in the same manner. A cause and effect chart is applicable to many subjects and to many areas of the same subject. The language which accompanies such a chart is applicable in any subject.

If . . . then

Because . . .

It follows that . . .

101

Content areas seem to divide into two components: knowledge of a subject and the application of that knowledge. One component is incomplete without the other since assimilation of the subject matter requires the integration of both of them. The hierarchy of thinking processes involved, ranging from recall to synthesis, will be expressed in appropriate language. Teachers can develop specific strategies to help the student bridge the gap between the comprehension of the material (knowledge) and the expression of it in linguistic form (application). The following suggestions will help subject teachers carry out this process with their E.S.L./D. students.

— The teacher uses key visual aids such as pictures, objects, and charts to clarify the presentation of material.

— Students and teacher use charts to categorize, classify, contrast, and compare data.

— Students answer comprehension questions from a chart.

— Students "read" (interpret) a chart using the appropriate language. This task may vary in complexity from description to comparison.

— Students write descriptions using a chart as a guide.

— The teacher demonstrates a process by using cartoon strips.

— Students demonstrate their comprehension of the process by arranging the cartoons in sequence and by talking about the process.

— Students use charts to practise asking questions of other students, summarizing in note form, and drawing conclusions.

— The teacher designs activities where groups of students must parallel the process just completed in class or in other words must gather data, organize it and arrange it in sequence, analyze it, synthesize it, and draw conclusions from it.

— The interpretation of material should be in both oral and written language and students should be encouraged to develop their own key visual aids to reinforce their presentations.

— The teacher encourages the use of video in editing, critiquing, and reorganizing presentations.

E.S.L./D. students and first language/dialect students who work together in groups will benefit each other. The ultimate goal for the subject area teacher is to encourage every student to assimilate new information, contribute background experience and knowledge to the group, and participate in the application of knowledge by extrapolating, organizing, and synthesizing data. By doing so, every student experiences the excitement of discovery learning.

Section: VI

Resources

Resources

Learning a second language is a complex process, one which develops cyclically over a period of time. The needs and goals of E.S.L./D. learners change and vary as their second language or dialect develops and as the purposes for which the language may be used are extended. There is no one method best suited to address these needs and meet these goals. Since language is interwoven into the fabric of daily human life, it is obvious that approaches and techniques used to teach it should be multiple and varied.

Getting Started

Those First Few Days With the New E.S.L. Student

Throughout the province there are many schools and teachers without an E.S.L. resource person or E.S.L. material to draw on when a new student enrols whose lack of English restricts progress in the regular classroom.

Teachers are often apprehensive about helping students unfamiliar with the language of instruction; such students may be even more frightened. They must adjust to a new school, new classmates, a new routine, and a new teacher. The totally new environment is bewildering and often overwhelming. Adjustment, like integration, is a two-way street.

The following practical suggestions are designed to help general classroom teachers and E.S.L. students survive the first few days.

1. Welcome the student (and parents) warmly. The new student may differ from the host culture majority in skin color, dress, language, and custom, all of which are essential to the student's identity. When you accept the student, you accept all these components, all that the student is. You do this warmly, openly, with no reservations. No language is needed to communicate this acceptance to the student, to the parents, or to the rest of the class.

2. Find a "buddy" who speaks the student's first language. New E.S.L./D. students need a great deal of information quickly to adjust to a new environment. Their knowledge of English and the school situation may be too limited for simple explanations. The "buddy," preferably from the class, becomes their lifeline as they receive all necessary information in their own language, e.g.,

   Where is the washroom?

   What is the bell for? (recess, fire drill)

   Where is everybody going? (lunch, P.E., library)

   May I look at the books? (pictures, games, etc.)

   Why do you sit at tables sometimes?

   Why do I have to go to the nurse?

   New students need time to absorb the sights and sounds around them, to get used to the school routine, and to become comfortable in their new classroom. With their buddies to answer their questions and the opportunity to watch and listen in a warm, supportive atmosphere, they will soon be ready for the next step — beginning to participate whenever they can. The length of this initiation period varies with different students.

3. Set aside a few minutes every day to work with the students individually. In the secondary school this session may be timetabled. Because of schedule demands more than one teacher may be required to work with the student. This should be avoided if possible. In the beginning stages particularly, the consistency of a support program is essential.

   In the elementary classroom more flexible timetables may permit a schedule that can be adjusted to suit the student's needs.

   Students of any age will learn a great deal of English from contact with peer groups. The desire to be accepted and to participate in activities is a powerful motivator for language communication. However, research indicates that acquisition of a second language is more efficient and effective when closely monitored and guided. Both kinds of exposure are mutually supportive.

4. Plan the sessions cyclically. Include many activities, games, and stories that the student can use between sessions to reinforce learning.

   What follows are suggestions for dealing with students who are beginners in English. Language items will vary depending on how much (or how little) English the student understands and can use.

   Greetings and farewells may be introduced on the first day. The student needs consistent patterns initially, e.g., "Hello Surjit," "Good-bye Surjit." Avoid such variations as "Good morning Surjit," "Hi Surjit," "So long," "See you," etc. Such variations will come later.

   Many of the constants such as days of the week, date, month, weather, time color, numbers, etc., are part of the daily routine in some classrooms. If the teacher concentrates on a consistent pattern, the E.S.L./D. student will soon be able to respond with the rest of the class. (e.g., "What is the date? It's May the second," or "What day is today? Today's Friday." or "What day was yesterday? Yesterday was . . .")

   Note: Be consistent with the pattern you choose in the early stages. If the pattern used is "What is the date?" then "What date is it today?" may elicit "It date May second."

   If these topics are not part of classroom routine (e.g., secondary school) teach them to the student individually. In their own language students will already have the concepts of time, color, numbers, days of the week, months, dates, etc., but they need the English vocabulary and structures to function in everyday situations. Name objects around the classroom and/or around the school that are important in the daily routine. Using a consistent pattern and a question/answer technique, gradually introduce a useful vocabulary on which to build, e.g.:

   Teacher: What's this?

   Student: desk

   Teacher: Yes, this is a desk.

   and then Teacher: Is this a desk, Surjit?

   Student: No, it's a chair.

Caution: Speak in a normal tone at normal speed. Do not expect students to respond initially. They need to listen to English sounds and to associate the objects to which you are pointing, and the sounds, with what they already know in their own language. When they are ready, they will produce in English.

Print (or write for older students) on a flashcard "This is a desk," and attach it to a desk. Make other flashcards and encourage the student to repeat the pattern while he or she is looking at the written representation. (These flashcards may be used again for matching games.)

Move rapidly to plurals "These are desks" and the use of numbers, colors, etc., to describe objects. Encourage the students to ask as well as answer questions. Notice that the sentence patterns thus far have used only the verb "to be." However, the students should now be able to ask or answer questions on a variety of topics. Here are some examples.

What's your name?

What's this?

What day is today?

What's the weather like today?

What color is your pencil?

Where is your book?

Who is your teacher?

Students must be able to communicate information about themselves and their needs to function. Patterns that include verbs other than "to be" are required at this point. (e.g., "Where do you live?" "Do you walk to school?" "Where does your father work?") Answers to some of these kinds of questions will require prepositions. (e.g., "I live on Heather Street." or "I live at 1455 Heather Street in Vancouver.") Work on prepositions may logically begin at the initial stages when functional classroom vocabulary is introduced. (e.g., Where is the book? It's on the desk.)

The foregoing sequence is a suggestion only; it will vary to meet the language needs of each student. The goal is to enable students to participate as quickly as possible, however minimally, with their peer groups and then to increase that participation steadily. The need for control in vocabulary and structure will gradually decrease as students become more confident in their ability to use English.

5. Set up peer tutoring and the buddy system.

One of the major concerns expressed by classroom teachers who have E.S.L. students is the lack of time to teach these students without neglecting the rest of the class. This is a justifiable concern, particularly if the E.S.L. students are just beginning to acquire English.

While E.S.L. students are able to participate in some subjects, it is highly unlikely that they will be able to function adequately in subjects that are heavily language dependent. To some extent, E.S.L. assistance can be given while the regular class works on language arts and/or social studies; but where there is little or no E.S.L. assistance available in the school, and program modifications are difficult to implement, the E.S.L. students must be given individual assistance if they are to continue to feel productive. One of the most rewarding programs that a classroom teacher can initiate and monitor is a student tutor system. A minimum of the teacher's time is involved, and that does not have to be class time.

Follow these steps to initiate a student tutor system for an E.S.L. student:

— Assess the student to determine language needs.

— List the student's immediate needs in relation to the core curriculum.

— Obtain appropriate materials. Through the E.S.L. teacher who has assessed the student, obtain E.S.L. materials appropriate for meeting the student's language needs.

— Set up the tutor system's "mechanics." Select or have another teacher select an appropriate tutor (a grade 5 or older student, or an adult aide or volunteer). Consistency is important. Even if tutoring is required daily, no more than two tutors should be involved with each E.S.L. student (e.g., one might help on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; the other on Tuesday and Thursday). With the assistance of the E.S.L. teacher, if possible, arrange a timetable satisfactory to the tutor as well as the E.S.L. student. Find a room, cloakroom, or corner where the two can work orally without distractions.

— Determine the record-keeping system you will use to monitor the tutoring. (File folder with foolscap? Exercise book? Index cards?) Write concise directions for the tutor's first session with the student. For example:

  a) Tell Tajinder about yourself and find out about him.

  b) Talk about age, address, number of people in family, favorite school subject, things you both do for fun.

  c) Show Tajinder the picture on page 7 of *English Around the World*. Have him point to each picture and tell you what the people are doing. If he makes any mistakes, help him, and write the mistakes down please.

  d) Ask Tajinder about the school he went to before he came here. Find some things that are the same in Tajinder's old school and this one, and some ways that the schools are different.

— Orient the tutor. Have a discussion with the tutor in which you explain the reason the E.S.L. student needs help; explain the tutor's role and duties (one of which will be recording his or her observations for you); and explain the mechanics (timetable, procedure during the session, etc.).

— Arrange to supervise at least part of the first session to ensure the tutor follows instructions properly and to see whether too many or too few activities have been listed for that length of time. Arrange for short but regular discussions where the tutor can ask questions and tell you of any difficulties, and you can encourage good work. (Once per week is usually sufficient.)

There are other, less formal ways that students in the classroom can assist the E.S.L. student, of course, but the format suggested above will provide for the student who cannot function adequately without E.S.L. support.

6. Encourage the students to participate in class activities as much as possible. Mathematics, art, physical education, and music are subjects with which the students may already be familiar and which do not make as many demands on their English as do language arts (or literature), social studies, and science. The new students will be able to function to some extent in those subjects that are not heavily language dependent after the first week or so. Provide visual support and reinforcement with demonstrations, pictures, diagrams, charts, etc. For example, students may not understand the English words "add," "plus," or "equals," but the symbols are universal: 7 + 3 = 10.

7. List the expressions most commonly used in your classroom. Leave a tape recorder running for an hour or so. You will be amazed at the complexity and variety of language needed to cope with everyday activities. This is the language the E.S.L./D. students will need to function on an equal basis with their peers. Arrange your list in order of priority and incorporate the list into your support program.

8. Students just beginning to learn English will not be able to participate in English or social studies classes for some time; this achievement remains the ultimate goal. During these classes, however, they must be engaged in "meaningful" activity. They can work on an assigned task using, for example, the Language Master, the tape recorder, pictures. Responsibility for one's own learning is an important precept; without it, progress is impeded.

9. Beginning E.S.L. students, however, do not have to be continually "busy." It is important that the students feel free to sit and listen.

10. The curriculum for all B.C. students is well established. The curriculum guides clearly articulate goals and student objectives for each subject area and grade level. These are the objectives for E.S.L. students too, but the students have a different starting point from monolingual students who speak standard English fluently. E.S.L. students will need bridge objectives to fill the gap between where they are and where they should be according to age and grade level (see Section V, part 6 for bridge objectives). For example, the class may be working in the comparison of adjectives, regular and irregular. Your E.S.L. student may be able to use the following sentence construction and parts of speech: "This is a pencil." In this case the following bridge objectives could be used to help the E.S.L. student reach the desired curriculum objective for their grade level.

GRADE OBJECTIVE	BRIDGE OBJECTIVES
The student will be able to use adjectives, regular and irregular, in the comparative and superlative degrees.	The student will be able to use adjectives. The student will be able to use regular adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees. The student will be able to use irregular adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees.

11. Learn as much as you can about the student's linguistic and cultural background. Meet the family in either a home or a school visit. (You may need the help of an interpreter.)

    The E.S.L. student in your classroom brings a great deal to the learning situation; all students can be enriched by learning first hand about another language, about other customs and mores. Greetings, songs, games, and stories can be shared across cultures. Parents too have contributions to make and may be delighted to be asked to your classroom as resource persons. Coaching, judo, origami, and costume sharing are just a few of the ideas teachers have already used successfully.

Multicultural classrooms are a reality in B.C.; cross-cultural sharing and caring must become part of that reality.

Interaction Activities

Acquisition of language skills does not automatically result in the use of these skills in spontaneous communication. All teachers have experienced the frustration of hearing the student who has used a language item perfectly in a controlled classroom situation (e.g., "How much does this cost?") walk outside the door and say, "How much cost it?"

This phenomenon is identified as the difference between skill-getting and skill-using.[1] Skill-getting activities are designed to practise language in pseudo-communication, that is, in contrived or simulated-real situations. This activity is necessary to develop linguistic competence, but it does not force the student to find and use the responses appropriate to an unstructured social situation, i.e., communicative competence. To become fluent in a language, students must develop the ability to communicate meaning in a socially acceptable way, to use language as native speakers do for the purpose of social interaction.

Practice in social interaction is difficult to arrange in a classroom. Effective practice requires totally involved students who are motivated to communicate in the English language they have acquired, however limited.

Correction of student language during interaction activities is inappropriate as it represses student spontaneity. Teachers can use this time to observe students' communicative ability, noting specific difficulties for future instruction.

As a guide for teachers, most of these interaction activities are arranged in a hierarchy from beginners to advanced. However, some language functions do not lend themselves to this arrangement. Teachers should judge whether or not students are ready to use language for particular purposes and then provide many opportunities for students to use language spontaneously.

Note: As students engage in interaction activities, they should learn the appropriate gestures and body language.

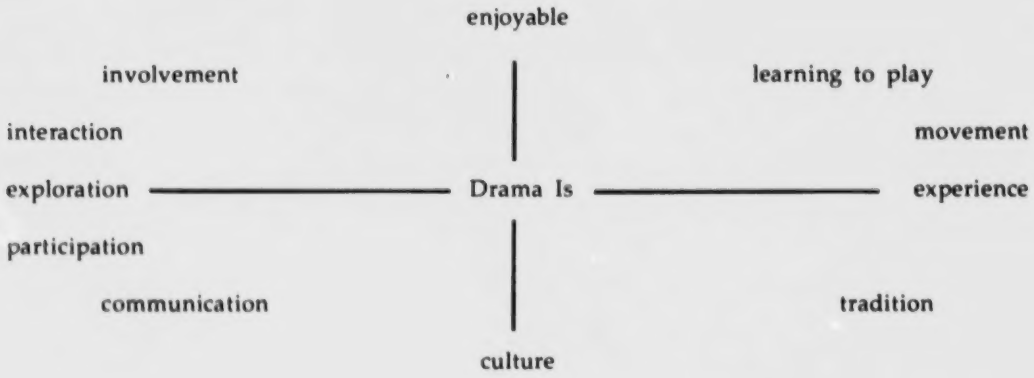
IDEAS FOR INTERACTION	
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS	INTERACTION ACTIVITIES
Establish and Maintaining Social Relations — greetings and farewells in varied social roles — wishes for special occasions — polite inquiries — making arrangements — giving and following directions — accepting and refusing invitations — making excuses — agreeing, disagreeing (politely) — rebuking — encouraging and discouraging an overture — persuading — expressing impatience — disgust — dismay — making and breaking promises — hedging — teasing	Example 1: Giving and Following Directions — Beginner level. Students should understand and follow a sequence of directions. — Divide class into small groups sitting in a circle. — Give each group a maze grid and a set of direction cards. — One player is given the maze grid; student opposite is given a direction card. — First student reads direction card (e.g., Go north two blocks). Second student plots move. Cards and maze move to next student in clockwise direction. Example 2: Making Excuses — Intermediate level. Welcoming unexpected visitors to your home while making excuses for the disarray. Students create and role play the situation in groups. Example 3: Accepting and Refusing Invitation — Advanced level. One group of students tries to persuade another group (or individual) to come to a party. The second group (or individual) does not want to go but does not want to seem impolite. The excuses will indicate that the invitee is hedging (e.g., "I would really like to but I promised . . .")

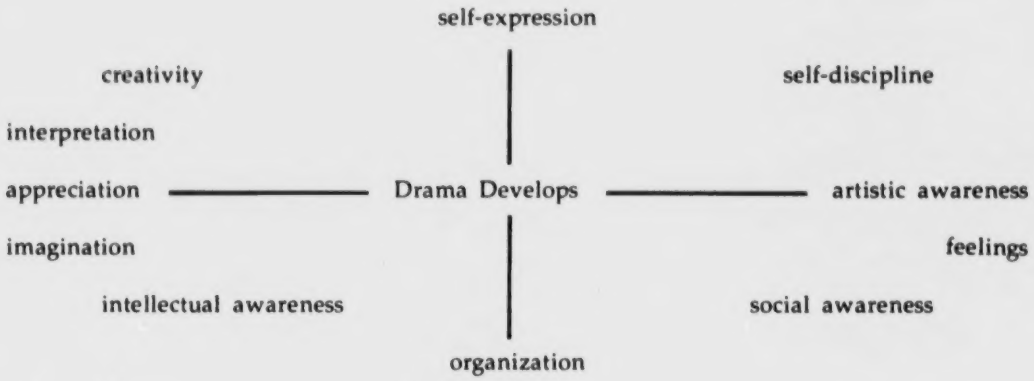
IDEAS FOR INTERACTION	
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS	INTERACTION ACTIVITIES
Expressing Reactions	Example 1: Beginner level. "Do you like oranges?" "No, but I love bananas." Example 2: Intermediate level. One group of students presents a slide show; another group reacts verbally throughout, asking questions, making comments, etc. Friendly banter is encouraged. Example 3: Advanced level. The class attends a play, a film, or a game. An open discussion follows in which everyone is encouraged to give an opinion and defend it.
Hiding Intentions	Situations are devised which involve one group in trying to find out the intentions of another group, e.g., the detective game. One group has witnessed a crime. One of the members is the guilty party. The detective(s), who has been chosen beforehand and is waiting outside the room, enters and begins to question individuals, trying to find the guilty party. Note: An activity such as this can be adapted for any language level or age group. Students will use the language level of which they are capable.
Talking One's Way out of Trouble	Give groups (or pairs) a dilemma from which they must extricate themselves. Situations of increasing verbal difficulty may be designed for advanced students, e.g., "I thought you were going to meet me at 4 o'clock. I waited for an hour, and you didn't show up!"

IDEAS FOR INTERACTION	
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS	INTERACTION ACTIVITIES
Seeking and Giving Information	Interviews Planning a Trip Applying for a Job, etc.
Learning or Teaching How To Do Something	Recipes Dances Crafts, Hobbies, etc.
Conducting Telephone Conversations	Finding out specific information Making arrangements/appointments Placing an order Chatting with a friend you haven't seen for a long time
Problem-Solving	Twenty Questions Who am I? Charades Current Events (world problems) Social school situations, e.g., Should the cafeteria sell "junk" food?
Playing With Language	(See Games) Advertisements Group poetry
Role Playing	(See Drama)

Drama

Drama is a useful device for developing oral language, attention and concentration span, memory, listening, speaking, and reading skills. Drama and active participation go hand in hand.





Creative drama provides a starting point from which students develop and improvise a situation. It offers wide scope for the exploration of language, emotion, and experience. It gives participants the opportunity to

— express ideas at the language level of which they are capable,

— initiate quick thinking and decision making,

— interpret directions with artistic awareness, imagination, and comprehension,

— "live" a situation rather than imagine it,

— develop communicative competence in different roles.

When students are able to handle creative drama, a well-written script may be used. Although a written script does not provide opportunity for students to create their own speech patterns, it can serve as a model of spoken English. If natural speech is used in different roles, the language level will reflect the socio-economic and/or cultural environment. Such role models can develop an awareness of appropriate language use in different situations.

Some Objectives for Using Drama With E.S.L./D. Students

— encouraging students to use English freely in different roles

— encouraging students to use everyday practical speech

— encouraging students to express feelings verbally and non-verbally

— encouraging students to listen to and follow verbal instructions and directions

— encouraging the development of skills in organizing, sequencing, synthesizing, and processing information.

Useful Equipment for Drama

— cassette tape recorders

— an abundance of 30-minute blank tapes

— record players

— records for background music, for language models, for creative movement, etc.

— filmstrip projectors and viewers

— listening posts and headphones

— puppets

— materials and props for creating simple sets or costumes

— a good supply of story books, filmstrips, slides, and tapes

Suggested Drama Activities for the Classroom

— respond to teacher-given directions with movement

— move around in a big circle

— turn three times in a clockwise direction

— jump like a jack-in-the-box

— shake your fingers, hands, arms, shoulders, head, chest, legs, etc.

— draw circles with your head, right and left arms, fingers,

— write the word "go" with your toe

— wriggle like a worm

The above activities develop skills in listening, concentration, and comprehension.

Miming Activities

— a tree in the wind
— a man shaving
— a robot walking through a crowd
— a child learning to walk
— a scary monster
— a nail being pounded into a board
— a monkey climbing a ladder
— a farmer picking berries or apples
— the sun coming up in the morning
— a cowboy riding a bucking bronco
— a man pulling a big fish from the sea
— I'm hot, cold, hungry
— come here
— good-bye

The above activities develop skills in creativity, imagination, concentration, and spontaneous language.

Small Group Activities That Require Planning and Organization

— a typist in an office full of people
— children entering through a window after they have been locked out
— children at recess
— an interview with television personnel or a celebrity
— an accident scene
— a telephone dialogue between two friends
— conversation between a sales person and a customer, a doctor and a patient, or a teacher and a pupil
— an argument between a husband and a wife
— planning a party
— a job interview
— a conversation between parents and a child after report card day

The above activities develop skills in co-operation, participation, social awareness, cultural awareness, imagination, creativity, self-expression, and organization.

Guessing Games (with individuals)

— brushing you teeth
— blowing a bubble
— dialling a telephone number
— pouring a glass of milk and drinking it
— playing a musical instrument
— walking across a tightrope
— ringing a church bell
— cooking something
— putting on makeup
— eating jello

Guessing Games (small groups with discussion)

— running downstairs and being caught by the hall monitor
— giving your parents your report card
— striking out in an important ball game, and the crowd gets nasty
— eating your lunch of raw carrots, celery, and an apple
— annoying your neighbors
— going to the doctor for a shot
— meeting a new student at school

The above activities develop skills in observation, artistic and social awareness, interpretation, and self-discipline.

Group Activity for Developing Reading and Writing

Students are divided in small groups and given a story starter. Each group develops its own story to be shared with the whole class later. This could be developed as follows:

1. Script Skills

Choose a familiar story of interest to the students. (More proficient students can be given new material.)

The students as a group rewrite the story into a 5-minute play. The group decides the role each will play and the dialogue they use. Students share their production with classmates. Advanced students make notes during the performance and later prepare a critique for oral and written presentation.

This activity develops skills in integrating language with experience, knowledge, interpretation, and appreciation.

2. The Dialogue[2]

Students who learn English as a second language have difficulties with verb tenses. The source for this drama is a dialogue prepared by the author. It practises simple present and past tenses as well as the present and past continuous. Obviously, the dialogue has been designed with E.S.L./D. students in mind, and by itself provides a suitable vehicle for drilling tenses of verbs.

More and more linguists agree that the processes of first and second language acquisition are essentially the same and that the language activities essential for language development in first language learners will also benefit second language learners. Because this unit involves students in inferential comprehension, speculation, drawing, writing, problem-solving, spontaneous improvisation, role playing, and ultimately reflection and critical analysis, its implications for language development for all students go beyond the simple dialogue that is the drama source.

Source — The Dialogue

Person 1	Hey! You're walking on the grass.
Person 2	No, I'm not. I'm walking on the path.
Person 1	Yes, right now you're on the path, but a minute ago you were walking on the grass.
Person 2	I was not.
Witness 1	I saw you, you were walking on the grass, but when the policeman called to you, you jumped onto the path.
Person 2	I did not; you're lying.
Witness 2	Yes, you're lying. I was watching, and she was walking on the path all the time.
Witness 1	Don't you call me a liar. Do you think I'm blind? I tell you she was walking on the grass.
Witness 2	Yes, you're blind, and stupid too. She was walking on the path.
Person 1	Stop arguing. I'll take you all to the police station, and we'll settle this there.

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
Introductory questions help set the scene.	Questions to be answered orally:
By describing place and character, students become involved with characters.	Where are these people? Describe the place.

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
Developmentally, drawing precedes writing. Many young children draw first and are then able to talk and write about what has been drawn. Having students draw often helps them sort out their ideas and establish concepts.	Teacher can build up a chalkboard drawing as students present ideas, or students can draw the scene and then describe it to the teacher.
Students make inferences and begin to build characters.	What kind of a person is 1? What kind of a person is 2? What kind of a person is witness 1? What kind of a person is witness 2?
The importance of non-verbal signals in language are pointed out.	Point out that these people can be any kind of people the students want them to be, but their character will be revealed in their voice, mannerisms, etc. Demonstrate by reading the parts differently, and ask students to make assumptions about the kind of person you are portraying.
Initially working solo enables students to gain confidence and allow them time to develop some commitment to the role.	Solo work: Decide who you are, your age, occupation. Temperament — quick-tempered? easy going? placid? Physical characteristics — how do you walk? sit? do you limp? frown a lot? Home background — married? children? why are you in this place? where are you going? where have you just come from?
Look for student concentration and belief.	In order to gauge students' involvement and concentration, ask students to do some solo mime work. Solo Mime (in role): Show me what you do at work. Show me what you were doing just before you came to this place.

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
This preliminary group work allows students the opportunity to discuss the setting, share ideas, and finally make group decisions as to place and time.	Group Work: Place — in your group decide exactly what the place is like. Where is the path? Where does the path go? What else is there? benches. trees? flower garden? Set up the place using chairs, etc. (Allow five minutes for this.) Time — what time of day is it? what time of year?
Teacher moves from group to group giving advice and help if necessary.	Students now practise the play. Teacher moves around the groups giving help if necessary. Things to look for: Are the characters clear? Do the students believe in their characters? Don't hesitate to stop the group and ask questions if the characters aren't clear. If the activity is not working, stop and ask the students to analyse what's going wrong.
An audience, with back to players, is useful when the players are inexperienced, or when stressing the language and the quality of voice and what it conveys. It can be done as well with students watching players.	Students perform the plays for each other. This can be done while the audience sits with backs to performers and then in small groups. Discuss what kind of people were being portrayed (inference just from voices).
Writing helps synthesize ideas.	The teacher divides groups into pairs and gives each pair a card that indicates a character, e.g., witness 1. Together the students discuss the character and write a description of him or her. They can give the character a name, talk about physical appearance, temperament, etc.
Student-created dialogue can become the source for further work.	In groups, decide what happens at the police station. Improvise the scene; then have them write up their new dialogue which can then be acted out and shared.

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
Writing down verbal ideas helps clarify points of view.	Have students write up individual reports of what happened from the point of view of the person they portrayed.
By playing an authority figure, the teacher is able to control the drama by asking questions that extend the students' thinking and language.	Advanced Work: Problem-solving — The teacher takes on the role of judge. Put the students in the roles of police board members. Tell them they have been called together because of a serious accusation that has been made about one of their policemen. Tell them you have various reports on the matter. Distribute the reports and let them read them.
This is advanced work in that students need experience in simple role playing situations before they can enter into this kind of work with any sincerity.	Policeman's Report — Last Thursday I accused a girl in the park of walking on the grass in an area where it is not allowed. She hopped onto the path when I called to her, and then she denied walking on the grass. Some witnesses began arguing about who was right, and I decided they should all accompany me to the police station where we could settle the matter. At the police station the girl still denied walking on the grass, and one of the witnesses, a teenage boy, supported her. She started crying and saying I had picked on her and she was innocent and she was going to see my superiors because I was lying about her.
The potential for drama lies in this section of the lesson. The group is confronted with an issue and must work together to find a solution.	She demanded we call her mother and said she would "get me for this." The witness who had supported me at the park now said he "didn't want to get involved," and he refused to be a witness for me. But I didn't lie, and I know this hearing will clear my name.

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
	Girl's Report — Last Thursday when I was walking in the park, this policeman yelled at me and accused me of walking on the grass. I wasn't walking on the grass. I was walking on the path, and I didn't do anything wrong. He was very rude to me, and in the car going to the station he threatened me and said I was too smart for my own good, and I should be home doing my homework, or helping my mother cook dinner instead of walking around the park. I think the guy is a little crazy. He seems to really hate teenagers. He frightened me. I don't think people like him should be allowed in the police force.
The unit involves listening, speaking, reading, writing, and drawing in an integrated fashion. It facilitates thinking and involves manipulating language, both spoken and written.	Let the children, in their roles as members of the police board, try to decide from the evidence who is lying. The teacher, as head of the board, must facilitate thinking by asking the group questions. Is this the first time the policeman has been accused of lying? Why doesn't he have the name and address of the witness he said supported him at first? Does this girl have a history of lying? How reliable is her witness?
The teacher, in the role of the judge, will use a more formal language mode, as will students role playing being in a court. Thus student's language is extended. Students use a mode of language that goes beyond their everyday existence.	Also have some students role play the four people involved in the case before the police board. This should be done without preparation. The teacher, as judge, should simply ask, "Is the policeman present?" and then look around expectantly. A student will eventually volunteer and take the responsibility for answering questions in role. If the class is not experienced with this kind of work, you may

NOTES FOR THE TEACHER	PROCEDURE
	want to give a student a role by addressing him directly e.g., "Well, Constable Jones, we've read your report, could I now ask you to come up front here while we ask you a few questions — thank you." Encourage the class to ask questions in order to ascertain the truth. As well as the people in the dialogue, additional witnesses could be called e.g., the mother of the girl who was accused of walking on the grass. The teacher, as judge, must keep asking challenging questions of the board and witnesses, so that students continually grapple with thought and language together. After all evidence has been heard, the teacher asks the group to decide the verdict.
The class reflects on the experience of the lesson. Have they reached any deeper understanding? It is during this time of reflection that students synthesize their ideas and thus reach deeper levels of understanding. Thus the lesson has moved from a simple language drill to grappling with a problem to new understanding. This type of drama pushes the students beyond their present levels of language use, thinking, and comprehension.	The teacher comes out of role and asks the group to reflect on some of the problems raised by the subject matter of the lesson. Some questions that may come up are as follows: What can you do if no one believes you? How do you tell if someone is lying?

Games

The Use of Language Games for E.S.L./D. Students

Games can foster a pleasant learning situation, reduce students' feeling of stress, and provide an opportunity for teachers to observe student progress. Language games are not mere diversions or time-consuming activities. Rather they are genuine aids that motivate and enhance learning in the affective, cognitive/linguistic, and social/cultural domains.

Why Use Games?

Socially and affectively, games can promote confidence, independence, co-operation, relaxed interaction between student and teacher which might be culturally unfamiliar to many E.S.L./D. students, student-student interaction both within the E.S.L. classroom and in regular classes, and more positive attitudes towards cultural variation.

Linguistically, games can facilitate the introduction and/or reinforcement of language features (the sound system, grammatical items, vocabulary) in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Games can promote communicative competence, the socially appropriate use of language. This area of language use brings together the affective social skills and individual linguistic achievement.

Teachers should keep in mind that not all cultural groups regard games as learning devices. Students who feel uncomfortable "playing" games should be shown the learning possibilities of games in the classroom and gradually be encouraged to participate.

Some Guidelines for the Effective Use of Learning Games in the Classroom

Check physical facilities for good acoustic/visual equipment. Rotate students, if necessary, so that no one is always at the back of the playing area.

Keep the pace brisk. Students should have to wait only briefly for a turn. Avoid the overuse of dictionaries as this slows the pace.

Focus on co-operative rather than competitive games. Avoid or modify games that require the elimination of players. Select games that can be completed within a specified portion of class time. Lengthy games such as Monopoly or Clue are more suitably played during recreational time.

Select games that are intellectually stimulating but easy to understand.

Encourage equal participation in games. Avoid having one person, either student or teacher, dominate the activity. Select games appropriate to the students' ages, interests, and ability levels. Allow for a variety of games: some active, some quiet; some small group, some large group activities; some focussing on one teaching point, some integrative.

Be familiar with objectives, procedure, rules, and terminology of the games in order to simplify the language needed for introducing and playing the game.

Keep correction to a minimum. Attend immediately only to unintelligible or ambiguous responses.

Stop the game before students tire of it. In this way students will probably want to play the game again. Consider having follow-up activities (e.g., blackboard story, experience chart) for certain types of interaction games (e.g., the Supermarket game). This is the only way for students to see that games are part of the learning process. Ensure that each game has an educational objective and that each participant is aware of that objective.

The following is a random selection of favorite games suitable or adaptable for primary, intermediate, and/or secondary use.

My Grandmother Likes Tea but She Doesn't Like Coffee

This old parlor game is a useful and entertaining way to practise vocabulary without any restrictions other than the trick of understanding the basis of why grandmother likes some things and doesn't like other things. The trick is contained in the title.

Procedure: Explain to the students that you are going to tell them about your grandmother, especially what she likes and doesn't like. Give them a few examples. Tell students that they should volunteer to give an example of what she likes and doesn't like when they think they understand why she likes some things and doesn't like other things.

Examples: My grandmother likes cigarettes, but she doesn't like cigars

She likes watches, but she doesn't like clocks.

She likes cats, but she doesn't like dogs.

An Example Sequence of Interaction:

Teacher: Pierre, can you tell me what my grandmother likes and what she doesn't like?

Pierre: She likes teachers, but she doesn't like students.

Teacher: No. She likes both. She likes teachers, and she likes students too. Sylvia?

Sylvia: She likes cars, but she doesn't like trains.

Teacher: No, no. She likes trains, but she doesn't like cars!

Jose: I know, I know! She likes tigers, but she doesn't like lions.

Teacher: Good, Jose. You're right. She likes tigers, but she doesn't like lions.

Ahmed:	Let me try. I think she likes hats, but she doesn't like dresses.
Teacher:	Good. Rocco?
Rocco:	H-m-m-m. Does she like spaghetti?
Teacher:	Yes, she loves spaghetti. What doesn't she like?
Rocco:	Meat balls?
Teacher:	No, she does like meat balls.
Ingrid:	But she doesn't like pizza!
Teacher:	That's right, Ingrid. She doesn't like pizza.
Ingrid:	So, she must like Betty but she doesn't like Bob.
Teacher:	Good!

Note: It's fun to allow students to keep guessing; it's good practice of third person singular(s) as well as random vocabulary. If students get discouraged, keep reminding them that grandmother likes tea but she doesn't like coffee, or milk, or beer, or wine. Tea = T!

Furnish the House Game

Purpose:	to reinforce vocabulary associated with rooms and furniture in a house to use prepositions and compass directions to stimulate free conversation within the framework of a reasonably controlled vocabulary to practise reading and following directions
Motivation:	In previous lessons, stories and pictures (on overhead) were used to introduce vocabulary. Names of furniture and rooms were quite familiar. Prepositions were learned and practised.
Visual Aids:	floor plan of house — upstairs and downstairs pictures (cut from magazines) of furniture and appliances for each room 3" x 5" cards describing each room with specific instructions for room placement
Procedure:	The class is divided into groups of two or three people. Each group is given a card for a particular room. Each person picks out of a basket or an envelope three pieces of furniture so that all the pieces are mixed at random among students.

Rules of the Game: Each group reads their own cards and must then find out who has the furniture they need for their particular room.

Furniture can only be redeemed by asking for it, e.g., "Do you have a white bed?" or "I need that chair" or "Please give me that table."

When all the pieces are redeemed, the group must follow the description cards, placing the furniture pieces as described.

Follow-up: Students view the total house and attempt to imagine the family's story, e.g., family names, ages, who shares rooms, assumptions about life style. This is done verbally. Then students dictate the story to the teacher. The whole class corrects errors, and the story is copied.

Homework: Students write a story about their own home, children, etc.

Why — Because Charade

Objectives: to match cause with effect

to demonstrate comprehension of written message

to practise "why" questions and "because" clauses

Materials: ten players

a set of ten cards: five causes; five matching effects

Procedure: Form two groups of five people.

Each player in group one takes a "cause" card; each player in group two takes an "effect" card.

Each player reads own card silently; then acts out the message.

All players perform at the same time while watching the opposite group to find the right partner.

When all partners are matched, each pair acts out its cards for the others. Students verbalize the actions by one partner asking a "why" question and by the other responding with a "because" clause.

What's in the Soup?

Objectives: to develop aural retention

to practise using numbers as descriptors

to practise using terms of quantity

to practise a specific verb and tense

to develop fluency in speaking increasingly long sentences.

Materials: None necessary, but picture cards help beginning students with vocabulary and memory cues.

Procedure: Use a chain drill format. Have the group build up a recipe from this initial sentence: "Mrs. Smith put ten cups of water into the soup."

For example:

Student 1: Mrs. Smith put ten cups of water and three carrots into the soup.

Student 2: Mrs. Smith put ten cups of water, three carrots, and two pounds of meat into the soup.

Student 3: Mrs. Smith put . . . etc.

Chance Games

Two examples of chance games are Cross Canada Race and Take a Chance.

Objectives:
- to develop reading comprehension
- to enable the student to follow directions
- to review geographical concepts of Canada

Materials:
- gameboards designed by teacher (see Figures 1 and 2)
- chance cards designed by teacher or students
- dice

Procedure: Player rolls dice and lands on a chance position. A chance card must then be taken and the directions followed.

Example of a Chance Card: You have run out of gas — miss a turn.

Variations: The game can be used with any of the content areas. Other versions of the game can be designed.

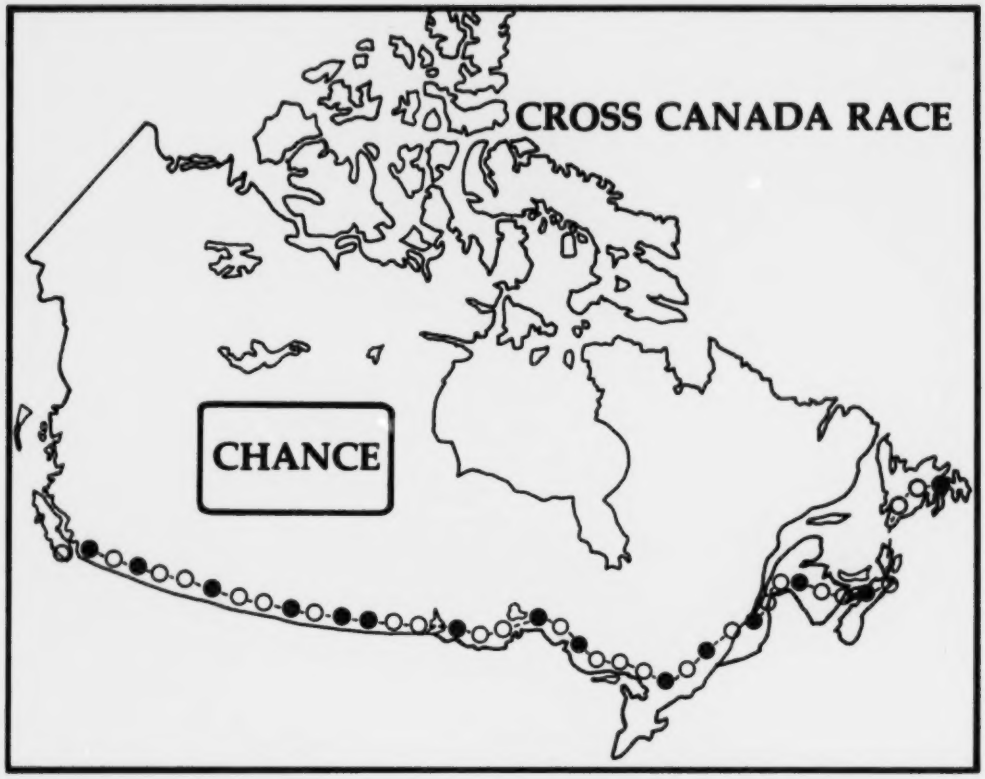


Figure 1

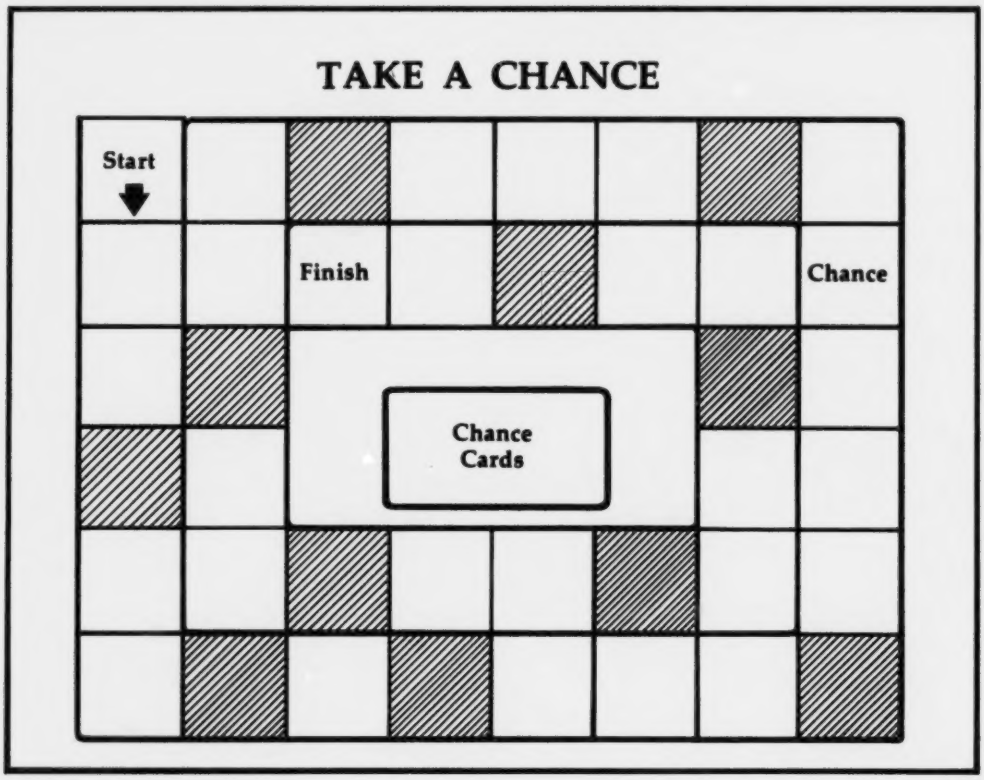


Figure 2

131

Password

Objectives: to review vocabulary items

to practice synonyms and antonyms

Materials: filing cards

Procedure: The teacher writes vocabulary items to be reviewed on file cards.

Two teams are formed. One person in each team is the "guesser."

The others give clues in turn. If after one minute the "guesser" from team A has not come up with the word, team B may add a clue and have its turn.

Example: The word is "bulky." Team A may give "big" as first clue, but the "guesser" answers "huge." Teams alternate starting the guessing and get a point for guessing correctly. For the next round those guessing and giving clues change within their teams.

What Am I?

Objectives: to improve reading comprehension

to facilitate matching skills

Materials: teacher-made gameboards containing 16 triangles each containing a picture of an object

cut-out triangles on which are written clues that match each picture.

Procedure: Two or four students may play. Each student takes a turn drawing a clue from the clue pile. If the clue drawn matches one of the object pictures on his or her gameboard, the clue shape is placed over the picture. If not, it is returned to the pile.

My Friend's Cat — Adjective and Alphabet Review (or My Uncle's Parrot, Harry's Mouse, etc.)

1st. Player: begins with an adjective starting with "A," e.g., "My friend's cat is an amazing cat."

2nd Player: uses an adjective starting with "B," e.g., "My friend's cat is a big cat."

3rd Player: using "C," may say, "My friend's cat is a cautious cat."

and so on through the alphabet. The meanings of the adjectives should have been learned already, in other contexts.

Whose?

Students give the teacher various small objects that belong to them. The teacher mixes the items up on the table and puts them into a bag. She or he then takes them out one by one and says: "Let's see, whose is this?"

To practise possessives, the teacher, or whoever is "it," may say: "Is this John's . . .?

To practise possessive pronouns, the form would be: "Is this yours, John?

When the owner is found, he or she says: "It's mine."

Then the teacher asks: "Whose is it?" and the class responds: "It's John's."

This game is suitable at a fairly early stage when possessive pronouns are being taught.

Face to Face (or All Change!)

Pupils are in pairs, facing each other in a large circle. "It" stands in the centre and gives commands which all players obey, e.g., "Stand back to back," or "Shake hands," or "Touch each other's shoulders."

Suddenly "it" calls out, "All Change!" and everyone must get a new partner. "It" also tries to get a new partner. The one without a partner goes to the centre and gives the commands.

What Are You Going To Do on the Weekend?

Objective: to practise "going to," "want to," and the subordinate clause with "after"

Type: small groups

Procedure: Divide the class into small groups. This game uses a chain drill format. Ask the first player in each group, "What are you going to do tomorrow?" Response may be, "I'm going to have breakfast." Second player repeats first player's response in an "after" clause, e.g., "After I have breakfast, I am going to play soccer." Other players in the group add to the initial sentence. The group with the longest chain wins.

("Want to" may be used instead of "going to.")

Snakes and Ladders

Objectives:

form 1 — to develop skill in word recognition and usage

form 2 — to increase vocabulary

Materials:

teacher-made gameboard in the format of the commercial game of the same name

form 1 — each square contains a printed word

form 2 — each square contains a picture

dice and items to mark one's place

actual small objects to use in place of pictures for a variation of form 2

Procedure:

Each player takes a turn rolling the dice and moving his or her marker the required number of spaces. The player must then say the word written or illustrated on the landing square and use the word in a sentence.

Drag Race

Objectives:

to practise the recognition and pronunciation of consonant blends

to improve vocabulary

Materials:

teacher-made gameboard featuring a racetrack on which the players may race their "cars" to the finish

dice and "car" markers

Procedure:

Each player in turn rolls the dice and moves his or her marker the number of spaces indicated. The player then must say a word beginning with the blend in the landing square in order to occupy the square. The game may expand to use of the word in a sentence.

Variations:

Substitute consonant endings, prefixes, or suffixes for the initial blends when making the gameboard.

Supermarket

Objectives:

to use supermarket vocabulary

to practise using directions and asking questions

to develop reading comprehension

Materials:

gameboard

sets of cards with verbal cues

play money

dice

pencil and shopping list to keep purchases totalled

Procedure:

Each student receives the following:

a set amount of play money

a "consumer" picture showing who she or he is (e.g., a teenager, a laborer, a dentist)

Gameboard cards are placed face down. Students fill out a shopping list containing five items illustrated on the board and add items as required during the game. Dice are rolled to start (the person with the highest number starts and the other players follow, moving clockwise around the table). The student landing on a marked square picks up the appropriate card and does one of the following:

— answers a skill-testing question

— says something appropriate to the person on the left/right/opposite according to the directions (e.g., the card contains only one or two key phrases such as "tomato soup," "ask the person on your left." The student then asks a question such as, "Do you know where the tomato soup is?" The person spoken to would answer positively ("Yes, it's in Aisle 3").

— receives bonus money, etc.

The first person out of the supermarket with their items and money left over "wins."

Chance:

"You need bacon. Where would you go?" (The student can give a spoken response, if required. The player is allowed to move his or her piece to another Chance spot near the correct part of the board.)

"You just received a $5 refund from the supermarket manager. What's a refund?" (student can define)

Oops!

"You just dropped a tomato on the shoe of the person on your left." (The student apologizes to the person on his or her left. The person replies appropriately.)

"Bump," "shopping cart" (The student makes an appropriate comment to any player. The other player can reply.)

"Move back two paces. You forgot to buy something ($2)." (The student names an object, a price, and gives the cashier money.)

"Your father needs a new toothbrush. Ask another player where to find it." (First player chooses any player to ask. Response expected.)

"Salad," "4 ingredients," "spend $4" (Student announces in single words/phrase/sentence what the purchases are.)

Customers:

Students pick up role cards which require them to purchase items of a general type with an upper spending limit.

"You are a mother, buy something to make a sandwich ($1.50)."

"Your grandmother has a cold, buy her something to drink ($1)."

"Your father has an allergy, purchase something for his nose ($1)."

"Your class is having a party, buy a snack ($1)."

Students can move their pieces forward/backward, state the name of the purchase, and give play money to the cashier.

Prototype of a Supermarket Game
BAKED GOODS
BREAD
CAKE
CRUMPETS
APPLES
BANANAS
FRESH PRODUCE
CARROTS
POTATOES
CHEESE
DAIRY GOODS
EGGS
MILK
YOGHURT
START
OOPS!
CHANCE
CHANGE
CASHIER
LAUNDRY PRODUCTS
SOAP
BLEACH
CANNED GOODS
DOG FOOD
COFFEE
SOUP
DRY GOODS
SPAGHETTI
CEREAL
RICE
TEA
FROZEN FOODS
ICE CREAM
CUSTOMERS
FINISH
ROASTS
SAUSAGES
MEAT
STEAKS
TURKEY
POULTRY
OCTOPUS
FISH

Poetry

Rhymes and poems are valuable tools for helping E.S.L./D. students learn to use and enjoy English.

Teachers can introduce poems from the beginning to surround students with the sound of English and to introduce them to the pleasure of listening to the melody and rhythm of the language. When new students are ready to participate orally, they can be supported by choral response. Speech flow is easier to attain when incorporated into a rhythmic repetitious rhyme. An example of this is the A.A. Milne poem which begins: "John had/Great big/waterproof/Boots on."

Certain English sounds are difficult for some students to articulate, especially if the sound does not occur in their native language. Explanations and/or drills are not interesting or helpful, especially for young students. Practice becomes a delight, however, when it is incorporated in a nonsense jingle such as:

Thirty thousand thoughtless boys
Thought they'd make a thundering
noise.
So with thirty thousand thumbs
They thumped on thirty thousand
drums.

The rhythm of English is stress-timed, (e.g.; an utterance contains one or more strong stresses; the unstressed syllables are sandwiched between them). The quality of the vowel sounds are different in stressed or unstressed positions, e.g., I can (kn) can (can) fruit.

Poetry is an effective enjoyable medium for reinforcing the language's melody. Students can clap or tap out the strong stresses. The class may be divided into groups — one group to recite, one to clap, one to use rhythm instruments.

Chants such as the following also are effective for emphasizing the language's stress and intonation system.

John, John the leprechaun.
Went to school with no clothes on.
Teacher said, "That's not fair
Give him back his underwear."

Rhyming develops the skill of prediction which is essential for fluent reading. For instance students guess at the rhyming word in the following:

Rain, rain, go away
Come again another _____.

Familiar poems can be used at first, gradually leading to original work.

138

The techniques used in poetry such as alliteration, onomatopoeia, hyperbole, personification, metaphor, and simile may be introduced informally early in the language learning process so that students can enjoy and experiment with the possibilities of language extension long before they become aware of the terms and the intricacies of literary analysis. Abstract ideas embodied in the language are difficult to teach and learn. The sounds of poetry create moods which even the beginning student can understand and appreciate.

POETIC TECHNIQUES	
Alliteration	The rain is falling all around It falls on field and tree R.L. Stevenson
Hyperbole (exaggeration)	The Hippo He starts to yawn — it takes all day. Theodore Roethke
Personification (assigning human characteristics to inanimate objects)	O Shadow dear Shadow Come Shadow And Dance! Ivy O. Eastwick
Metaphor	The fog creeps in On little cat feet Carl Sandburg
Simile	My love is like a red, red rose Robert Burns
Onomatopoeia	I hear lake water lapping with low sounds by the shore; W.B. Yeats

It is interesting to note here that every language has its own onomatopoeic sounds. In English, we refer to a dog's bark as "bow-wow," but in Chinese it's "wang-wang."

Every language has its own referents which are a part of the literary heritage of every culture. Most native English speakers, for example, would understand a simile such as "Her cupboard is as bare as Mother Hubbard's" because of the familiarity with traditional English nursery rhymes. Such understanding is essential for mastery of a second language and will require the teacher's specific attention.

139

Literary referents from other cultures, however, also form part of the English language. Allusions found in mythology, in the figurative language, in the prose and poetry of English literature reflect Greek, Roman, and Biblical influence. Such allusions are also part of the literary heritage of students from European and/or Judeo-Christian backgrounds, e.g., That is his Achilles, heel; or render unto Caesar those things which are Caesar's; or he's searching for the Golden Fleece.

For E.S.L. students with literary backgrounds different from those mentioned above, such references will obscure meaning.

It has been said that a latent poet sleeps in everyone. It is the teacher's task to awaken the innate capacity for poetry in students and to encourage them to use the language they are learning to express their innermost thoughts, hopes, and dreams.

As students learn to "play" with poetry, to experiment with techniques, and to experience the excitement of discovery, they will begin naturally and easily to use language creatively.

The following procedure was developed by an imaginative teacher into a lesson that results in the creative use of language. It is for use with a regular class of grade 8 or 9 level but provides opportunities for E.S.L. and E.S.D. students who are part of the class to participate effectively using the language they know.

With the help of the students list the five senses on the board.

Under this list write the word "subject."

Encourage the class to suggest a subject for a five-line poem.

List class suggestions and come to a consensus.

When the topic has been selected, elicit as many adjectives as possible from each student to describe the chosen subject and write them on the board in the appropriate sense category.

Have the class decide which adjectives best describe the subject.

The class writes a poem using the framework established, e.g.,

sight:	Invisible
sound:	Whispering
taste:	Hard to swallow
touch:	Airy, cool
smell:	Fresh and naturally perfumed
subject:	The wind

Now encourage students to write their own poems. Have some students read their poems to the class, withholding the last word, to see if the others can guess the subject. If they cannot, it may be because of a poor choice of words. Encourage students to use their dictionaries and to experiment with new words.

Here are two examples of student efforts:

Red	Pink
Crackling	Popping
Hot	Sweet
Burning	Gooey
Smoky	Unusual
Fire	Bubble gum

As students experiment with more detailed descriptions, they sometimes begin to use similes. It is often easier to describe something by comparing it to something else, as in the following example:

Stringy and slippery as worms,

Hard to get on a fork,

Spicy and hot as fire,

It smells of herbs . . .

Spaghetti!

Of course exposure to and experimentation with poetry is integral to every language arts or English classroom. The poet is a master of the craft of using words. All students — from the E.S.L. student just beginning to acquire a second language, to the apprentice E.S.D. student who already has a rich language heritage to draw from, to the fluent native speaker of English as a standard dialect — are developing skills, appreciation, and cultural awareness that will enrich their lives and expand their horizons.

Poetry is a powerful medium for learning language. It should not be denied to any student, especially E.S.L./D. students.

Songs

Music is a universal human experience that enhances learning. "More than anything else rhythm and harmony find their way into the secret place of the soul." So wrote Plato in support of music's essential role in education.

Singing is an important aid in devloping oral language fluency. Songs help E.S.L./D. students become more aware of the rhythm and pitch, the sounds and the intonation patterns of English. The melody and flow of music promotes fluency in articulating even the most difficult structures and vocabulary, e.g., Supercalifragilisticexpialidocious!

When carefully taught, the lyrics of well-chosen songs can facilitate understanding of new vocabulary and provide a pleasant way of practising it in context, as in the following example:

Puff the magic dragon

Lived by the sea

And frolicked in the autumn mist

In a land called Honalee.

Since music and song are universal, all students will be familiar with the medium although not necessarily with the diachronic scale. This familiarity provides a natural environment for cross-cultural exchange of information, customs, and language.

A Selected List of Useful Songs

The following is a suggested list of songs that teachers have found useful. Some are from the traditional repertoire of most English-speaking students, some are multicultural, some have been included because they lend themselves to the teaching of specific language features.

Old Macdonald Had a Farm

Home on the Range

Five Hundred Miles

You Are My Sunshine

The Happy Wanderer

Edelweiss

Morning Has Broken

Ten Green Bottles

There Were Ten in the Bed . . .

Row, Row, Row Your Boat

Oh, What a Beautiful Morning

142

This Old Man . . .
If You're Happy and You Know It
Four Strong Winds
This Land Is Your Land
It's a Small World
I'd Like To Teach the World To Sing
Brush Your Teeth
How Much Is That Doggie in the Window?
White Christmas
Blowing in the Wind
Do-Re-Mi
I've Been Working on the Railroad
My Bonnie Lies Over the Ocean
Raindrops Are Falling on My Head.
and many, many more
Keep Singing!

The following chart illustrates one way in which teachers may categorize the songs they collect. Many may find it useful to keep this information on small filing cards for easy access.

Categorization Chart

The age and second language development of the students will influence the linguistic items and concepts to be emphasized at any given time.

LANGUAGE LEVEL		LANGUAGE	
SONG	AGE LEVEL	FEATURES	CONCEPTS
The More We Are Together	beginners — all age groups	vocabulary comparative adjectives "th" voiced sound in "the," and "together"	friendship degree (more, happier)
He's Got the Whole World	beginners/ intermediate — all age groups	contractions: "He's"; preposition "in" 'intonation and stress	universal brotherhood

143

LANGUAGE LEVEL		LANGUAGE	
SONG	AGE LEVEL	FEATURES	CONCEPTS
Michael, Row the Boat Ashore	beginners/ intermediate — all age groups	imperative mood vocabulary	American history — slavery, religion, freedom, contrast of joy and sorrow
Billy Boy	intermediate/ advanced — all age groups	present perfect tense of verb "to be" "can" and "cannot" simile: "Quick as a cat can wink an eye" "ch" as in "cherry" "b" as in "Billy Boy"	family relationships traditional attributes of a "good" wife traditional courting rituals
Where Have All the Flowers Gone?	intermediate/ advanced — 10-year-olds to adults	"Wh" questions present, perfect past, and future tenses inverted word order	the devastation and futility of war mood the universal cycle of war
Every Child Has a Beautiful Name	intermediate/ advanced — 10-year-olds to adults	opposites: "big and tall," "short and small" conjunctions: "but and/or "because"	mutli-culturism (people are the same all over the world) the importance of one's name the importance of one's self

Using Songs

Songs may be used in many ways for many purposes such as introducing material; reinforcing material; listening skills; and initiating and stimulating discussion, drama, or creative writing.

The following is just one of many ways to introduce and use a song:

1. Have students listen to the song two or three times (voice, tape, record).
2. Encourage students to talk about the song (response to music, meaning of words, etc.).
3. If appropriate, give background information and/or an explanation. This could be done by the teacher, by a student, or by a visitor. Pictures of drawings should accompany simple explanations.
4. If students have begun to develop L_2 literacy skills, have them read the words of the song as they listen a second time.
5. Check comprehension, and teach specific language features.
6. Choose follow-up activities that include miming or dramatizing the lyrics of the song, rhythm activities, cloze-type exercises, composing new lyrics, illustrating the song, collecting songs with similar themes from students' native cultures. The latter activity could be presented in a multi-media format and could be developed into a class project.

The merits of musical experiences in language learning are increasingly emphasized in educational research. As Mary Helen Richards has noted,

> Singing is elevated speech and as such it emphasizes the rhythm, melody, and structure of the language. The experience game song*, focuses the child on the language he speaks, turning him in, focusing his attention, helping him to see, hear, and feel; to anticipate and respond.[3]

*"Experience game song" is a term used by the author to emphasize the multiple attributes she feels are encompassed in the medium of song.

Outline for a Lesson Using "El Condor Pasa"

Give each student a copy of the words.

Explain the song title and display a picture of a condor or any vulture.

Display other bird pictures, especially a swan and a sparrow.

Display a snail shell or a picture of a snail.

Play the tape two or three times. Encourage students to sing along.

Ask how a vulture moves.

Play the brief introduction and tell students to move with the music.

Elicit comments as to how the music makes them feel.

Write "I'd rather be a sparrow than a snail" on the board.

Have students say "sparrow" and clap their hands to mark the syllables.

Do the same with "snail."

Erase "sparrow" and "snail" from the sentence on the board, and replace "sparrow" with two dashes and "snail" with one.

Then sing the line two or three times, clapping where the dashes are.

Ask what a sparrow is. Encourage hand movement to demonstrate flight and movement on the ground.

When it's established that a sparrow is a bird, ask students for names of other birds, and write the names on the board.

The teacher may have to add one or two. Be sure there's at least one that doesn't fit rhythmically.

Ask students to decide among themselves if all the words are appropriate as to category. Have all the students test their decisions by clapping the word as they sing the line.

Repeat the test for all words, leaving it up to the students to eliminate any that are inappropriate.

Use the same procedure to establish a category for "snail." If there are any biology students in the class, they might come up with "mollusk," but something like "small creature" would be an easier category to add to the list.

Ask one student to choose a word from each category and say the line. Have all students clap the line and then sing it.

Put "would" and "could" on the board, and indicate that students should question each other.

Then put "Why?" on the board and see if they can discover for themselves the relationship between the two categories.

Play the song again. Have the students sing and move with the music, clapping for the "slot" words.

Write "I'd rather be a hammer than a nail" on the board and use the same procedure to establish categories and to eliminate inappropriate words. Have students sing and act out words that are suitable, and possibly get a building project going. Try to keep the hammer from being too hard on the nail!

This would probably be sufficient for one lesson period. The rest of the song could be saved for another day.

The language teaching points covered by this lesson would (hopefully) be as follows:

Structure

— use of "than" as a conjunction

— use of "would" and "could" in statements, questions, and negatives

— organization of words into proper classes and in proper order.

Conversation

— student dialogue about birds and their prey

— student dialogue about tools and their use

— student dialogue about country and city

Rhythm

— maintaining language rhythm by inserting appropriate words.

Imagery and Sensory Perception

— the swan gliding over the water

— the shadow of the vulture

A possible topic of conversation to follow up would be other music by Simon and Garfunkel.

Writing Activities

Beginners

Start where the students are. Most students who are not familiar with the Roman alphabet need a great deal of practice in both forming and using the letters. Encourage students to write what they can say and read. (e.g., "My name is Surjit.") Copying labels, identifying objects in the classroom, copying key vocabulary words, and copying language experience stories are all useful writing activities.

Demonstrate the relationship between grammatical structure and written communicative skills without obscuring the composition objectives by overemphasizing the grammar. The main goal is to teach the student how to convey a message in writing.

Build in the opportunity for students to experience success in written communication from the outset. Beginning students are often frustrated by their inability to express their ideas in written English. By capitalizing on the students' experiences, their cognitive skills, and their existing level of English, teachers can facilitate expression of ideas with a minimum of error. For example, students who wish to compare their former school with their new school but who lack the tenses, conjunctions, comparative forms, etc., necessary for comparative writing may find that a chart format lets them convey their message using the language they have mastered.

My school in _____	My new school
is big	is big
is near my house	is far from my house

To faciliatate language flow teach the students connecting words and phrases as in the two following examples:

My school in _____ is big, and my new school is too.

My school in _____ is near my house, but my new school is far from my house.

As students advance, rhetorical phrases such as "however" and "generally speaking" can be introduced to demonstrate relationships between thoughts, thereby enabling students to write with increasing coherence. Maintain emphasis on expressive writing to help students develop a sense of purpose and audience within the confines of familiarity.

Focus on process as well as product. The improvement and development of writing skills are more important than the evaluation of the written passage.

Emphasize continually that what the student thinks and says is important enough to be written. This is not to say that writing is just written-down speech. Students will need to be shown the structural differences between written and spoken forms.

Intermediate and Beyond

For students beyond the beginning level the previous guidelines still apply. In addition, the program can now increase its focus on the expanding sense of purpose, audience, organization, and use of English.

Maintain a student-centred approach to writing by using the English skills that the student has already developed. Increase the attention paid to the organization system accepted as logical in written English. Encourage students to refine their skills of

- generalization,
- chronological order,
- classification,
- spatial order,
- comparison,
- contrast,
- cause and result,
- hypothesis.

When editing, help students move from the expressive to the transactional and poetic modes of writing. Students are now ready to expand the purposes for which writing may be used. (e.g., content area reports, narratives, essays). Keep in mind that

> No dialect should be presented as 'right' or 'pure' or 'logical' or better than others. The student should be given an opportunity to learn a standard written English, but the teacher must resist the temptation to allow the cultivation of a standard written English to stifle self-expression or to overshadow emphasis on clear, forceful, interesting writing.[4]

Challenge students to write in different forms using the same theme. The following sequence of writing that uses a common theme is suggested by Nancy Arapoff. The progression is from simple to complex.

Using a simple six-line dialogue as the core material, the teacher can focus on a particular aspect as as direct address, narration, paraphrase, summary, factual analysis, assertion, essay, analysis of arguments, evaluation of arguments, critical review, and term paper.[5]

The levels of complex thinking underlying the forms of writing depend on the students age and language ability. The above suggestions, however, will give teachers a possible framework within which different forms of writing can be practised.

Provide opportunities for cross-cultural exchange of information by encouraging students to incorporate themes, stories, ideas, character myths, and mores from their own cultures into the content of their written English.

Some Practical Classroom Ideas for Developing Writing

Example 1: (oral background story format)

— Select an event or activity (e.g., a field trip to a supermarket) with which students are familiar in vocabulary/structures.

— Orally elicit key items, and put these on the blackboard.

— Using key items, have the group recall events in the order of occurrence and place the sentences, as given, on the board.

— Do a group correction of this blackboard story.

— Teach towards the acquisition of a few items that arise out of errors in the story.

— At this point there are options. Have students copy down the corrected version and do a similar story for homework, or ask students to 'reproduce' the board story immediately, using only key items for guidance.

Example 2:

— Write out on slips of paper different sentences that make up a composition.

— Have the group or individual rearrange the papers into the correct order.

— Deal with questions on the logic of the story as the arranging is taking place; specific vocabulary/structures might be dealt with once the corrected version is done.

— Give students slips of paper on which a topic is written according to the individual's level (e.g., simple topic — how to make tea; intermediate — an account of one's day) and assign this for independent work.

For variation have students submit topics.

Example 3:

— Arrange wordless cartoons on a table, and have students place them in correct order.

— Ask students to supply the dialogue, and have students add descriptions of actions.

— Have students add descriptions of feelings, objects, intentions, etc.

— As an option, give a new set of cartoons as a parallel writing assignment.

Example 4:

— Discuss a current news story to ensure that students have the requisite vocabulary and structures.

— Send students to do person-in-the-street interviews on the story, using one or two key questions for which the replies are written down.

— As an in-class group activity, have your students piece the story together. (e.g., "Public Opinion on Story X")

— Ask students to do other similar assignments. English-speaking buddies may be used as native informants if E.S.L./D. students feel more comfortable doing the assignment this way.

— In follow-up activities some news items may be of continued importance. Subsequent activities could develop students' skills in research, contrasting points of view, and summarizing and evaluating key issues.

Other Composition Ideas

— Have students complete a composition or supply the topic sentence.

— Ask students to become reporters and do a small class newspaper.

— Let students talk about folktales or similar material from their respective heritages. Assign the writing of the tale either individually or in groups.

— Read and discuss a short mystery. The writing of a parallel version might be an individual or group assignment. Have an outsider come into the room unexpectedly, do several simple things, and leave. Then ask your students to reconstruct the event orally and write a brief essay on what they have seen.

— As a group, fill in the blanks to a story. (A test such as Hill's *Contextualized Vocabulary Tests* might be used.[6]) Have students use the completed version as a model for a new assignment.

— Using a "bare bones" essay, have students add specific structures or vocabulary to it for effect.

— Have students listen to a taped item and then discuss it for content and vocabulary structures. Hand out a copy of the script for further expansion. Listen to the tape a second time and ask students to write a "bare bones" version. (An extension of this activity may be to have students write a simplified version of a second taped item for which no script is provided.)

— Provide a picture that students can write about. (*Growing in English Language Skills* gives examples and exercises of this type.[7])

— Keep a jar of assorted "free" topics which students may choose to tackle. (e.g., what every gourmet cook needs to know, a dream house, the qualities of a best friend, a tall tale, a myth, a fairy story, how to raise earthworms, Who am I?)

— Use an experience bag, an activity centre, etc., as a stimulus for writing.

— Distribute maps to your students. Have them listen to an audio description of what a speaker sees from a particular location. The objective is to guess where the speaker is. (This presumes every student is familiar with the area — the school, the neighborhood, the playground.) Students then write their own versions of "Where am I?" tape it, and play the game with the entire class participating.

— Ask students to change a dialogue into a description or an indirect discourse.

— Have students write a "Dear Abby" letter of advice, an advertisement for an imaginary machine, a classified ad, or a sports report.

— Have students tell in English a story with which they are familiar and tell it as though it were in their native culture. (e.g., "Johnny Appleseed," "Rip Van Winkle")

151

Field Trips

The idea of incorporating into regular curricula actual experience outside the classroom has long been accepted in North America as pedagogically sound and of benefit to all students. Such realistic learning experiences are even more important for students of different cultural backgrounds. As language is a reflection of experience, it is important that the growth and development of both proceed concurrently.

Although the rationale for using field trips as part of the learning environment is well known to teachers, there are some extra benefits for the E.S.L./D. students in the class.

There is an opportunity for students to visit a new location, try a new activity, and experience the new environment with the support and security of a group. The presence of the teacher or aide makes it possible for students to become confident in using in real situations the language which they are learning in the classroom. In a casual, relaxed atmosphere the relationships between students as well as between teacher and students deepen. Cultural similarities and differences are shared casually and naturally, and this often results in genuine interest and appreciation.

Alternative structures can be practised in a natural setting. Teaching styles in North America tend to be extremely verbal. When a student does not understand, a teacher rewords and rephrases the message to present it in an alternative way. Note this in the following example:

> Where is City Hall?
>
> Where do I find City Hall?
>
> Which direction do I take to go to City Hall?

Paraphrasing or rewording, a technique frequently used by all English speakers, may clarify the message for speakers familiar with the language, but for an E.S.L. student this may only increase confusion. The reasons for practising alternative expressions in the classroom become clear to students as they begin to interact with people in the community beyond the school.

Becoming familiar with a new community and its resources is difficult for any newcomer. If field trips are carefully planned, conducted, and followed up, students assimilate a great deal of information about the services and agencies available and learn how to use them.

General Guidelines

Preparation for the trip begins in the classroom many days before the event.

Students and their families should be aware of the trip's purpose. The teacher may want to show pictures, prepare lists or questions, or lead discussions to be sure the students know what they are going to see and do. Such preparation minimizes fear of the unknown, which E.S.L./D. students may be experiencing.

Students should know the location of the destination and the route from the school. Maps, diagrams, and bus schedules will provide the information as well as ample opportunity for practising useful language.

Allow students increasing responsibility for planning and arranging class excursions. The teacher's role becomes that of guide and facilitator. Students can make phone calls to enquire about bus times and routes, admission charges, group rates, refreshment facilities, etc. and then relay the information to the class for discussion. Encourage E.S.L./D. students to participate in these plans by using a buddy or small group system.

Inform students of what to wear, what to bring, and what to leave at home. They should also be clear about the time and place of departure, what to do if separated from the group, and the time and place of return.

Responsibility, appropriate behavior, and the accompanying language should be practised (by role play perhaps) before the event takes place.

The Event

At first plan simple trips. For some E.S.L./D. students, the saturation point for absorbing new experiences may be reached very quickly.

Initially, the parents of E.S.L./D. students may for cultural reasons resist the idea of class excursions. They may regard them as entertainment, not learning, and may be concerned about the interaction of boys and girls in a social setting. These valid parental concerns must be treated with patience, respect, and tact by the teacher and/or counsellor. Explanations (by an interpreter if necessary) and invitations to accompany the class are often enough to allay misgivings. Sometimes, however, it may take time and a few missed field trips before parents are ready to allow their children to participate. Because this kind of learning experience is so important for students' language development and cultural understanding, the teacher must continue efforts to convince reluctant parents of a field trip's educational value.

As there will be many follow-up activities in the classroom after the event, care should be taken to record information in some way. Some teachers use (or have the students use) cameras and/or cassette tape recorders. Students can often collect pamphlets, posters, or mementos for future use. Encourage the student's ideas in this regard to be relevant.

To avoid problems of cliques, language groups, or loners, assign specific tasks beforehand to students in pairs or small groups. E.S.L./D. students and students who are fluent in English need to interact with each other to broaden and expand their viewpoints.

Parents, older students, and/or volunteers from the community should be invited on field trips. In this way more individual attention and interaction is available for those students who need it most. Furthermore, the parents, relatives, and/or friends of E.S.L./D. students have the opportunity to experience a way of learning that may be new to them.

Follow-up activities are perhaps the most essential components of field trips. They are the link that make students aware that what they learn in the classroom is relevant to real life experience. Students can ask questions, review information, compare and contrast, and express opinions in the non-threatening classroom atmosphere.

The perceptive teacher will use a variety of methods and techniques to capitalize on the enthusiasm generated by the trip. The goal is for the students to internalize the language and experience to which they have been exposed.

Here are a few suggestions. Choice will be governed by the age, language level, and needs of the class. Activities can be done individually, in small groups, or as a class.

— oral discussion (Notes taken on the trip may be compared.)

— experience charts followed by written stories of the trip (group or individual)

— a bulletin board display using student accounts, student drawings, pictures taken, or pamphlets collected

— a collage of pictures arranged in sequence to describe the trip

— role play of a part of the trip, (e.g., conversation between a student and a guide at a museum about a specific artifact)

— an account of the trip written in the form of an advertisement to persuade other classes to go

— a letter to a friend, a poem, or a telephone conversation describing the trip

— a game created or adapted to practise following directions, vocabulary, questions and answers, specific structures, etc.

In and around every community there are opportunities for experiences that will help students apply, expand, and enrich classroom learning.

Community Learning Opportunities

In the Community:

Post Office
Supermarket (or Grocery Store)
Fire Hall
Police Station
City or Town Hall
Courtroom
Health Clinics
Hospital
Parks
Library
Banks
Traffic Control
Road Maintenance

Laundromat
Drugstore
Transportation
Dairy
Bakery
Restaurant
Local Industry
Places of Worship
Newspaper Office
Garage
Showroom for New Cars
Radio, T.V. Station
Movie Theatre

Around the Community:

Nature Walks
Fishing, Swimming, Horseback Riding
Skating, Skiing, Sleigh-riding, Snow-shoeing
Baseball, Hockey, Basketball, Soccer
Farming
Gardening
Fairs, Carnivals, Rodeos
Hobbies, Crafts
Concerts, Plays, Recitals
Art Shows
Forestry Station and/or Lookout

Possible field trips are limited only by the teacher's imagination and the students' interests. Language learning is an active process. Field trips stimulate and interest students, forcing them to use the language they are learning to function in the community.

A Unit of Lessons on a Ski Trip

The following is a suggested unit of lessons that includes a field trip. It could be adapted for an E.S.L. reception class or a support program to supplement preparations for a regular class outing.

Goal: to develop communicative competence

155

Objectives:

— Student will be able to talk about skiing using appropriate vocabulary.

— Student will be able to gather information — from telephone conversations, tapes, and from dialogues.

— Student will be able to give information in oral and written form.

— Student will be able to communicate personal reactions to the ski trip in a variety of ways. (e.g., free composition, newspaper/radio report, advertising copy, role play)

Lesson 1:

— introduction to theme "Skiing"

— presentation of a filmstrip and/or taped dialogue

— skiing vocabulary that occurs in dialogue

— structures that are used in dialogue

— announcement of ski trip (date, place, time) "Request for permission" letters which students take home to their parents are read together and discussed.

— comprehension questions on lesson assigned for individual work

Lesson 2:

Begin with a recapitulation of Lesson 1 to reinforce vocabulary, structure, and information about the field trip (parent consent forms, etc.).

— presentation of ski clothing vocabulary using felt board figures or paper dolls. Catalogues and magazines can furnish pictures of appropriate clothing to dress figures. (e.g., "What is he wearing on his head?" "A tuque." "Will he need ski poles?")

— reinforcement of vocabulary through word games, memory games, puzzles, role play, etc.

Lesson 3:

Begin by checking students' comprehension and retention of vocabulary from Lessons 1 and 2.

— presentation of a tape-recorded message from a ski resort (e.g., Grouse Mountain) detailing weather conditions, information about runs, time of operation, and cost of access

— As students listen again to the tape, comprehension questions will be asked. (e.g., "What is the base?" "What is a run?" "Which runs will be open?")

— presentation of commercial brochure of destination (If unavailable, make one which includes essential information, e.g., "What is the name of this resort?" "When can you ski there?" "How much does it cost?" "Can you rent skis?" "Who helps you choose skis?")

— The class makes a large information chart which will be used for future work.

Lesson 4:

The event! Every E.S.L./D. student will be paired (or in a group) with students who speak English. The teacher or aide will take along recording equipment, a camera, and a tape recorder or a video.

Lesson 5:

Encourage the free discussion of the trip. Present pictures and tapes.

— class describes the sequence of events using photos, drawings, and the chart prepared in Lesson 3

— Language experience stories: Depending on the age, size, and language ability of the group, the teacher writes down what students dictate or assigns the work individually or in small groups.

— Stories are read and shared.

Lesson 6:

The trip could culminate in an optional class project. (e.g., a collage, a play, a video presentation, a newspaper account for school or local paper, or advice to other groups planning a similar trip)

157

Lesson Models

The following lessons are for use by regular class teachers. Students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds require ongoing attention and support as they develop competence in the language of instruction. Even when such students have the opportunity of receiving help from an E.S.L./D. teacher, and even after they have developed a degree of competence in the language, they will often experience difficulties and lapses in English. Learning a language to the point of mastery is a developmental process that evolves gradually.

The following lessons are prototypes for use by regular class teachers. These lessons provide models only. By using the theory, methodology, and techniques suggested in this resource book together with these models, teachers can develop lesson models and units to meet the needs of their students.

The following guidelines are keys to successful lesson planning:

— **Adopt** those ideas, methods and techniques that have proven successful.

— **Adapt** the ideas to meet and/or complement teaching and learning styles.

— **Improve** the ideas wherever possible to meet the students' needs.

Lesson Model: Story

Lesson 1 demonstrates how a familiar story might be used for language development. The language of the E.S.L./D. students in the class needs monitoring, stimulation, and frequent reinforcement to help the students develop fluency and comprehension.

Story:	"Little Red Riding Hood"
Aim:	to promote verbal fluency
Student Objectives:	to retell and dramatize story to arrange events in the story in sequence to use correct tenses (present and future) and sentence patterns
Level:	kindergarten, grades 1 and 2 (some E.S.L./D. students will be members of the class)
Materials Needed:	storybook (e.g., *Child Guidance Action Book*), red cape and hood, dried flowers, basket, food items (real or pictures), glasses and night cap for Grandma, and mask for wolf (props help to make it much more meaningful for the children.)

Presentation:

Read or tell the story and show pictures. Question students after their initial reading to discover their understanding.

Reread the story or retell it using the flannel board. Question students and explain vocabulary if necessary.

Many fairytales and myths have been translated into other languages and therefore could be familiar to children from different cultures. Teachers should make certain, however, that there is comprehension in English as well. Pictures, objects, gestures, and mime are visual reinforcements for spoken language.

Now begin work on the present tense.

Grandma is sick.

Mother puts cookies in a basket.

Little Red Riding Hood takes the basket.

Continue and then have students retell and dramatize the story.

Be sure to accompany the words with action.

If the story is not familiar to the E.S.L./D. students in the class, complete comprehension will not result from one lesson. The teacher may wish to plan supplementary activities that E.S.L./D. children can use at other times. (e.g., Listen to the story again on tape, or arrange pictures of the story in sequence.)

The flannel board can be used for retelling if students need help.

Use the question and answer technique (e.g., "Who is sick?" "What does Mother put in the basket?").

After dramatizing the above pattern, substitutions may be used (e.g., different food, characters, clothes, etc.).

Evaluation of Objectives:

— Use story as a conversation as in the following dialogue.

Mother: I want you to take this food to Grandma.

Little Red Riding Hood: Why?

Mother: She's sick.

— Have students make up questions to ask each other such as "Where are you going?" or "Where does she live?"

— Teach commands such as "Run along!," "Open the door!," and "Be careful!"

— Develop story using the past tense as in "Little Red Riding Hood ran through the woods."

— Encourage free dramatization where students use their own words. Some like to change the ending. For example, after meeting the wolf, Little Red Riding Hood may say, "I'm afraid." This leads to discussion of feelings.

Follow-up Suggestions:

— unscrambling sentences
— arranging pictures and sentences in the correct sequence
— completing composition through questions
— filling in the slots
— illustrating the story as a T.V. show
— making puppets for a puppet show

The teacher may choose to use only some of the follow-up activities for the whole class. The suggestions listed here, however, could all be used at other times to supplement the language development of E.S.L./D. students.

Note that these follow-up activities depend on the student's level.

Lesson Model: Colors

This lesson would ordinarily be taught in a regular class at the primary level. E.S.L./D. students, however, may need the content of this lesson at any age or grade level if they are entering school for the first time. It can be adapted easily for a small group or an individual.

Aim: to teach basic color recognition and sight words

Student Objective: to recognize basic colors and color words

Level: kindergarten, grades 1 and 2

Materials Needed: flash cards with color painted on
flash cards with color circle painted on and word printed
flash cards with color words only
colored rods, balloons, buttons, crayons, papers, blocks, etc.

Presentation:

— Present a color flashcard (red) and name the color (red).
— Point to other objects of the same color and name the color.
— Have students repeat the color name.
— Have students find objects of that color (from box containing rods, buttons, etc.). Hold the object and repeat the color.
— Present flashcard with color and word. red

Students whose first language is not standard English will probably have developed a concept of color. However, the expression and categorization of colors is not the same in all languages. For example, students may seem to confuse yellow and brown. This does not necessarily mean that they do not see any difference; it may indicate that the culture places yellow and brown in the same category, just as light blue and navy blue are in the same category in English.

— Name the color and have students repeat the color.

— Present six colors in this way for the first lesson;

present five colors in this way for the second lesson.

Evaluation of Objectives:

— Present word flashcards only.

— Have students match the word card with a color/word card.

— Have students match the word card with a color card.

— Have students take an appropriately colored object from the box in response to the word card (no other clues).

L_1 students may reach this lesson's objectives very quickly because of their familiarity with English. The teacher therefore may wish to curtail some of the follow-up activities during regular class time and use them as supplementary material for E.S.L./D. students. Some of the games provide excellent activities for use by E.S.L./D. students and their buddies in free time.

Follow-up Suggestions

Oral Activities:

Follow Directions

— Leader directs and others follow. (Put three yellow rods behind you and a green one in your pocket.)

— Using crayons, students make a picture as dictated by the teacher. (Put a brown house in the middle of your paper; make a tall green tree on the left side of your house; put a yellow sun in the blue sky, etc.)

Guessing Games

— I'm thinking of a color that ends with the sound "a" (grey).

— I'm thinking of a color with two "ll's" in the middle (yellow).

— What color rod is in the box?

Student: Is the blue rod in the box?

"It": No, it isn't. (or Yes, it is.)

The student who answers correctly becomes "It."

Rhyming Words

— It rhymes with you. It rhymes with bed. The color is blue. The color is ____. (blink/pink, mellow/yellow, snack/black, mean/green, clown/brown, day/gray, night/white, circle/purple)

Group Activities:

— Tell a story and pause for a student to give an appropriate color word.

— Find a color rod that starts with the sound "g" for example.

— Tell a story, and students clap every time they hear a color word. (good for overhead or flannel boards)

— Students try to act out how they feel about colors.

— Students play "store" and "shop" (ask the clerk) for three green buttons and two brown rods, for example.

— Students talk about their favorite color (color of fruit, vegetables, clothing, cars, trucks, uniforms etc.).

Thinking and Telling

— Have all the color cards in a row

— One student leaves the room

— Hide one color card

— The student returns and guesses the missing color.

Straw Blowing Painting

— Put out only primary colors (red, yellow, blue).

— Give each student a paper and straw.

— The student drops a blob of color on the paper and blows on it with a straw.

— The student drops a different color blob next to first one and by blowing tries to mix the colors to make new colors.

— Frame and display the painting.

Finger Painting

— Student puts three blobs of primary color on finger painting paper.

— Mix the blobs to make new colors.

— Frame and display the painting.

Rainbow

— The student paints and blends wide swaths of color to form a rainbow.

— Display or cut into interesting shapes, mount on black paper, and display arranging patterns in sequence (oral instructions or written).

— Students string buttons or beads to a specific color pattern.

— Students place rods or blocks to a specific color pattern.

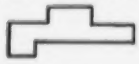
Individual Activities:

— Using an umbrella shape with premarked color words, students cut out triangles of colors and paste them into the shape of an umbrella.

— Students cut circles of colored paper and paste them into a color word flashcard (to be taken home for homework.)

— Use ditto sheets of objects to be classified into colors.

— Use ditto sheets of alphabet letters in block form with color words underneath.

— Use ditto sheets of color words and word outlines to be matched. (e.g., yellow . . . 

— Use ditto sheets of phrases (e.g., two blue triangles which students draw and color.

— Use ditto sheets of color circles to be matched with color words.

Lesson Model: Alphabet Activities

The following activities can be used in a regular primary class to familiarize students with the alphabet. Such skills are essential for all E.S.L./D. students and must be included at any level when necessary.

Secondary age students who are not familiar with the Roman alphabet may enjoy the gamelike activities that could be played with a buddy. Sound-symbol relationships, spelling, and pronunciation are reinforced and practised.

Aim:	to teach the alphabet (the order, names of letters, and sounds of letters)
Student Objective:	to manipulate the letters of the alphabet quickly and easily, and to be able to arrange them in sequence
Level:	grade 1
Materials Needed:	1 set (26) per student of 2" × 2" cardboard cards
	1 black crayon
	1 red crayon
Presenation:	— Following the teacher's blackboard presentation, each student makes five red cards, one each of a, e, i, o, and u.
	— Following the teacher's blackboard presentation, each student makes 21 black consonant cards.
	— Following a guide (e.g., blackboard, overhead, flashcards), students arrange their cards in alphabetic order on their desk top.
	— The teacher names each letter in order, and students touch each letter card and repeat the name of the letter.
Evaluation of Objectives:	— The teacher says the alphabet name, and students hold up the appropriate card.
	— The teacher says the alphabet name, and students print it on the blackboard.
	— The teacher says the alphabet, and students put that card into their own envelope. (Praise the "winner.")
Follow-up Suggestions:	— Students lay the alphabet out with no clues.
	— Students show the appropriate card as the teacher says the alphabet sound.

— Students move the cards to the sides of the desk top and put short vowel cards down the middle of the desk. The teacher directs the students to make a word (lad). Students put their left hand fingers on "l" and their right hand fingers on "d," slide the cards down to the next vowel, and say, "I led." They go on to the next card for "lid," etc.

— Students make short vowel words under the teacher's direction and add "e" to the end.

— Students make rhyme words by changing the first letter in a short vowel word (hip, lip, sip, tip, dip, drip).

— Students make a short vowel word and add another vowel (had, head, ten, teen).

— Students make singular words plural by adding "s" or "es."

— The teacher says a word, and students spell it and then add or subtract or change only one letter (e.g., and, hand, land, gland, bland, blank, plank).

— The teacher tells students what letters to put together, and they sound out the new word (trunk, note, etc.).

— Students make five words using a short vowel in the middle of each, use their word in a sentence and build the sentences into a story.

— Students make a word and use it in a sentence.

— Students build sentences into a story and illustrate it.

165

A Note on the Following Five Lesson Models

The following five lesson models demonstrate the ways in which subject teachers can help E.S.L./D. students become active participants while their language skills are developing. Some ideas will require time and effort on the part of the teacher but can result in dramatic benefits not only for E.S.L./D students but for many first language students as well.

It is always helpful for E.S.L./D. students to preview new material so that they at least become acquainted with new vocabulary and with picking out main ideas before the presentation in regular class. Subject teachers and language support teachers working together often produce exercises and worksheets that visually assist E.S.L./D. students' comprehension of the content rather than overwhelm them with language. Many key visuals in the form of charts or diagrams may be used over and over again.

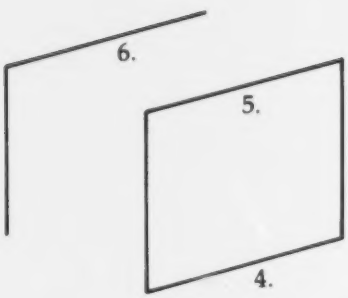
Lesson Model: Art

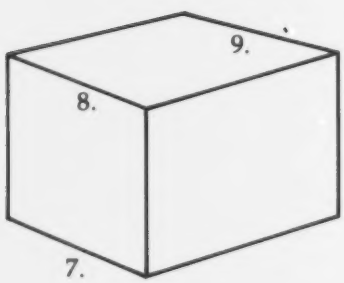
Art is often one of the first subjects into which E.S.L. students can be integrated. E.S.D. students will already be a part of the class. This lesson is designed for a regular art class but incorporates visuals, sentence patterns, and activities to reinforce language development.

Aim:	to aid students in the perception of the third dimension in art without bringing in complicated considerations of perspective
	to show students how they can enhance a sense of reality in drawing by placing shadows on or beside the objects
Student Objectives:	to demonstrate understanding of spatial perception
	to use key words related to spatial perception (e.g., geometric, cube, solid, rectangle, flat, surface, plane, inside, outside, within, beneath, above, over, behind, exterior, interior).
Level:	grades 7, 8, and 9
Materials Needed:	drawing paper
	2B pencils
	lamp or flashlight
	art book containing reproductions of paintings

several empty boxes: including a milk carton, matchbox, shoe box, and one perfect cube (sprayed gold to indicate that it's different from the others).

Presentation:

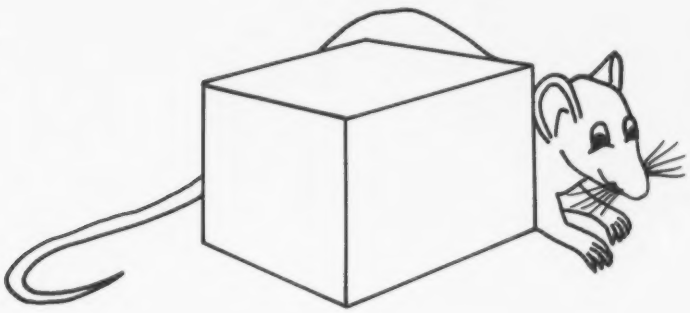




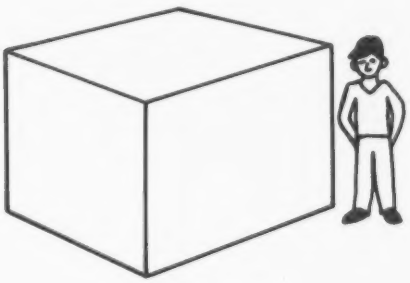
— Using the question, "What have I drawn?", elicit responses such as "You have drawn a box (crate, carton, rectangular solid, cube, etc.).

— "Why is the cube painted gold?" (It's special. All square sides are equal in size. It's a perfect shape.)

— Draw one of these box shapes on the blackboard and ask, "Is it a big box or a small box?" If the general opinion is that it is a big box, draw a mouse beside it.



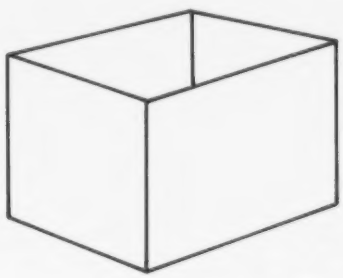
If the general opinion is that it is a small box, draw a human beside it.



— Discuss comparisons in size, and bring in the concept of scale (e.g., "It looks big if you do this; it looks small if you do that.")

— Use the blackboard eraser and frequently change the drawing beside the box, showing that the box changes in nature depending on what is drawn beside it.

— Pass around the various boxes. Let the students examine the boxes at different eye levels, and ask them such questions as "How does it look from above, beneath, or at eye level?" "Is this box opened or closed?" and "How can it be made to look open?" For the last question draw another line in the corner.)



— Ask, "What do you think this box is made of?" Discuss different surfaces such as wood, brick, glass, cardboard and wire. Have the students point out and name various surfaces found in the classroom.

— Draw a sun (or lamp) either to the left or right of the box on the blackboard and ask, "If this is the source of light, which side of the box should be made dark, or in shadow?"

— Discuss surface shadow and cast shadow, and have students use a lamp to demonstrate a shadow of one object cast on another (cast shadow) and one side shaded from the light (surface shadow).

— Show the class some reproduction of paintings. Have the students discuss where the source of light is in each painting. The following are good examples.

Vermeer — *The Artist in His Studio*
Rembrandt — *Night Watch*
Daumier — *The Third-Class Carriage*
Degas — *Cafe Concert*
Monet — *Charging Cross Bridge*
Beardsley — *Communication*

169

Activities:

— Have the students begin their drawings.

— "What can you turn this box into?" (Encourage a variety of ideas.)

— "Where is your source of light coming from?" If the box is a castle, the shadow falls on the rocks. If the box is a container for firewood, the shadow falls across the floor. If it is a jewel box, the shadow falls across the table.

— Complete the drawings. Allow a few minutes at the end of the period to have the students explain what their box is.

Follow-up Suggestions:

— In their own words, students write what their box is and build an imaginative story around their box.

— Make a box out of cardboard, wood, or any other suitable material.

— Group several boxes together to make an architectural structure.

— Build a model room using boxes within boxes and discuss interior planning, color schemes, etc.

— Make a model stage, with small figures, furniture, scenery, etc. Create settings for real or imaginary plays.

170

Lesson Model: Social Studies

This lesson is an example of one that could be used in a *transitional* class at the secondary level. It will be noted that the content of the socials course has not been altered. The language, however, has been simplified to accommodate the second language level of the students.

In a transitional class, final objectives for students are the same as in a regular class. However, some students may lack the basic information necessary to develop some of the concepts. For example, if students have never seen a map, that medium cannot be used for information gathering until the preliminary skills of map reading have been taught.

Technical and/or interpretive language is kept to a minimum in a transition class. Vocabulary terms essential to the subject content are taught systematically, and students are encouraged to use the language they know as they learn new material.

Aim:

to teach students how to gather and analyse information from a chart and to write their findings in sentence form.

to teach students the physical characteristics of two of Canada's geographical regions

Student Objectives:

to learn to read charts

to use information from charts to put into sentence form

to use terms of comparison in sentences

to demonstrate knowledge about the physical geography of two parts of Canada

Level:

grades 8, 9, and 10

Materials Needed:

ditto copies of chart and worksheets

student copies of the pamphlet *A Look at Canada* (This pamphlet, published by the Department of Mines, Energy, and Resources, would be helpful and add interest. The following chart is made from the information in this pamphlet.)

Presentation:

— Hand out charts; ask students to look first at the vocabulary listed on the same page as the chart. Go over all words. Students must be able to say, spell, and use these words. Most of this should be review for students at this level.

— Explain the use of charts. (e.g., They are a handy way to file information, like sorting out clothes in your dresser so you can find things. You put all the underwear in one drawer, all the T-shirts in another, etc. If you want a clean T-shirt, you know exactly which drawer to open. Or use file drawer and file folders as analogy.) Charts have added value in that we can file parallel information to use for comparison.

171

— Have students study the chart and look at the categories first. Ask students "What regions are we going to learn about?" and "What things are we going to learn about in these regions?"

Point out that the spaces on the chart are numbered. Ask, "In which space will we find the summer climate in the Atlantic region? the population distribution in the Atlantic region? and the relief of the Pacific region?" Work orally with students to be sure that they understand how to find information.

Activities:

— Hand out Worksheet #1. Go over answer the first question orally. Have students complete the first exercise. Go over the exercise orally.

Note that a useful alternative, especially for E.S.L. students, is to have them make up their own questions from the chart and ask other students. Have them write the questions in their notebooks first.

— Hand out Worksheet #2. Discuss the idea of comparing. Review words used in comparisons on the worksheet. Be sure that students understand comparing and contrasting. Students can now complete Exercise II. Go over the exercise orally.

— Introduce Exercise III. General comparisons have been made; now students will compare more detailed information. Do A and B with students orally to make sure they're on the right track. Students should now complete worksheet and hand it in.

— This will probably be enough for one lesson, or possibly too much. If the students do complete the work, further activities are suggested in the follow-up.

Evaluation of Objectives:

A test could be assigned, using a similar chart of different regions and using questions similar to those on the worksheets. To test factual knowledge, ask for some comparisons of regions on the test chart with regions on the original chart. (Students should not use original chart.)

Follow-up Suggestions:

— Using the sentences in Exercise II as headings, have the students group details from Exercise III under the appropriate headings.

— Have students write controlled composition, using the sentences from Exercises II and III, appropriately sorted.

— Use this lesson as a pattern for a similar lesson, using other regions or other categories of information.

Information Sheet and Vocabulary

	ATLANTIC COASTAL REGION	PACIFIC COASTAL REGION
RELIEF	broad coastal plain except in southern Nfld.	very narrow coastal plain, land rises sharply from sea
VEGETATION	broadleaf and needleleaf trees	needleleaf forest
CLIMATE—SUMMER	warm, 4 to 5 months, av. temp. 18°C. Often humid	warm, 4 to 5 months, av. temp. 15°C
CLIMATE—WINTER	fairly mild, av. temp. −3°C	mild, av. temp. 0°C, very high precipitation
ECONOMIC RESOURCES	fish, forest resources, minerals, agricultural land, potential oil and gas	fish, forest resources, minerals, hydroelectric power
POPULATION DISTRIBUTION	fairly evenly distributed along coasts, heavier near harbours and agricultural land	heavily concentrated in southwest, near Vancouver, and on east coast of Vancouver Island

Vocabulary: You must be able to say, spell, and use these words.

relief	plain	coastal
mountainous	vegetation	needleleaf
broadleaf	climate	temperature
precipitation	mild	economic
resources	agriculture	hydroelectric
manufacturing	potential	population
dense/density	sparse	distribution

Worksheet #1

Name _____

EXERCISE I

Use the chart to help you answer the following questions. Answer in complete sentences.

1. Describe the relief of the Pacific coastal region.

_____

_____

Describe the relief of the Atlantic coastal region.

_____

_____

2. What is the vegetation of the Atlantic region?

_____

What is the vegetation of the Pacific region?

_____

3. Describe the summer climate in the Atlantic region.

_____

Describe the summer climate in the Pacific region.

_____

Describe the winter climate in the Atlantic region.

_____

Describe the winter climate in the Pacific region.

_____

4. What are the economic resources of the Atlantic region?

_____

_____

Of the Pacific region? _____

_____

5. Describe the population distribution of the Atlantic region.

_____

_____

Of the Pacific region _____

_____

174

Worksheet #2

Name _____

EXERCISE II

Use "similar (to)" or "different (from)" to complete the following sentences.

Check your chart to make sure your information is correct.

1. The relief of the Atlantic coastal region is _____ the relief of the Pacific coastal region.
2. The vegetation of the two regions is _____ .
3. The climates are _____ in some ways, but _____ in others.
4. These regions have economic resources which are generally _____ .
5. The population distribution in the Pacific coastal region is _____ _____ that of the Atlantic region.

EXERCISE III

Use the following words or phrases to fill in the blanks in the following sentences.

but	also
whereas	however
and	higher than
both	lower than

1. The Atlantic region has a broad coastal plain, _____ on the Pacific coast the land rises sharply to 1,800 metres.
2. Summer is warm in _____ regions _____ lasts for four or five months. _____, the average summer temperature in the Atlantic region is _____ that of the Pacific region. The humidity in the Atlantic region is _____ higher.
3. The population on the Atlantic coast is evenly distributed _____ the population on the Pacific coast is concentrated in the southwest.
4. _____ regions produce fish, forest products, and minerals. The Pacific region produces hydroelectric power _____ .
5. The Atlantic region has a large area of agricultural land, _____ the Pacific coast has hardly any.
6. Winter is fairly mild in _____ regions _____ winter temperatures in the Atlantic region are _____ those of the Pacific coast.

7. The Atlantic region has potential oil and gas fields _____ the Pacific region has none.

8. _____ regions produce needleleaf trees _____ the Atlantic region _____ has broadleaf trees.

9. Winter precipitation on the Pacific coast is _____ that on the Atlantic coast.

176

Lesson Model: Chemistry

Aim: to teach students how to prepare oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon dioxide

to teach students to describe the process in a written laboratory report

Student Objectives: to follow directions for the process from a strip cartoon

to arrange the steps of the process in sequence

to perform the experiments

to describe the process orally

to describe the process in appropriate written language

Level: grade 9

Materials Needed: bunsen burners, splints, test tubes and racks, manganese dioxide, potassium chlorate, magnesium ribbon, vinegar, baking soda.

Presentation: demonstration by teacher accompanied by simple verbal explanation

A. Oxygen (O_2)

— Heat $KClO_3$.

— Test the gas with a glowing splint.

— Allow the test tube to cool.

— Add MnO_2.

— Test the gas with a glowing splint.

B. Hydrogen (H_2)

— Add HCl to a magnesium ribbon.

— Test the gas with a burning splint.

C. Carbon Dioxide(CO_2)

— Add vinegar to the baking soda.

— Test the gas with a burning splint.

Activities: Note that some E.S.L./D. students in the class will require extra help to ensure understanding. By grouping carefully, the teacher can choose suitable activities for reinforcing comprehension. Not all students will require all activities to reach the objectives.

177

— Strip cartoons of process are presented to class on the overhead projector to clarify steps and reinforce vocabulary.

— Copies of cartoons are given to students to arrange in sequence.

— Small groups of students perform experiment using the sequence of cartoons as a guide.

— Students practise describing experiment orally using appropriate language (e.g., "The KCl O_3 was heated over the bunsen burner" or "The gas was tested with a glowing splint.").

Note that the teacher will be preparing students to write laboratory reports in the required format. Oral language practice should reflect the use of the passive voice required in the written report.

— Students describe experiment in a written laboratory report.

Evaluation of Objectives:

The reports are marked for form, accuracy, sequence arrangement, conclusion, and appropriate language.

Follow-up Suggestions:

— a demonstration of one of the same experiments by a student

— a demonstration by a student from another class who is following the description in a laboratory report

— a similar experiment

Lesson Model: Mathematics

Aim: to teach the concept of equations

Student Objectives:
- to identify equations
- to define "equation," "solve," "solution," "solve by inspection," and "substitution"
- to make up equations

Level: grades 8 and 9

Material Needed: blackboard

Presentation:
- The teacher presents the class with a list of equations written on the blackboard. Students are asked what they see in each item, what they see recurring in every item, etc. Two features that will be obvious are the equals sign (=) and the unknown or variable (x).
- The concept of = is demonstrated visually on blackboard (e.g., $2 + 2 = 4$, $3 + 1 = 4$, or left side = right side).
- students make up their own list of equations
- The concept of the letter x is demonstrated (e.g., $x + 3 = 10$). Students discover that x seems to take the place of a number
- Students discover from the list on board that if they know what number x represents the question would be solved.
- Therefore, because (1) each item contains an x (an unknown) and (2) each item contains an =, they are all equations.
- The class can suggest a definition at this point (e.g., an equation has an = sign and an x).

Note that although this definition is simplistic, it is one that is meaningful to the students at this point. They will be able to refine the definition as the lesson progresses.

Activities:
- Refer to the original list of equations.

(e.g., If $x + 3 = 10$, what number must x be?

X must be 7. ∴ the answer = the solution.) The class tries to find solutions "in their heads" for the remainder of the equations listed on the board. They solve by inspection.

If the answer is 7, then does $x = 7$?

Since $x + 3 = 10$, then $7 + 3 = 10$. ∴ it is a true statement. replacing x by the answer (solution) is called substitution.

179

Evaluation of Objectives:

— Students in groups make up equations.

— Students in groups solve each others equation by inspection.

— Students identify and list parts of equation in chart form.

Equation	(LS) Left Side	(RS) Right Side	Unknown	Solution	Substitution
$x + 3 = 10$					
$x - 10 = 45$					
$5x = 15$					

Note that all the above suggestions may not be necessary for *all* students. The intent is to determine whether or not individuals have reached the lesson objectives.

Follow-up Suggestions:

This lesson is only the first of a series to develop fully the concept of equation. The approach used is visual discovery, using examples and student observation with a minimum of language explanation. The sequence of lessons could be as follows, using a cyclic development of equation solving over the separate domains of whole numbers, integers, and rationals.

— The domain of the whole numbers will involve equations like $x + 10 = 45$, $25 - x = 14$, $15x = 75$, and $x \div 4 = 16$.

— The domain of integers will involve equations like $x + 10 = 4$, $25 - x = 36$, $15x = -75$, and $x \div 4 = -16$.

— The domain of the rationals will involve equations like $x + 10 = 6\text{-}1/3$, $25 - x = 1/3$, $15x = 63$, and $x \div 6 = 2/3$.

Not only will the ideas be repeated, but the vocabulary, the structures, the questions, and equation-solving steps will be presented at each stage. The study itself is cyclic in nature.

Each block of examples contains each of the four operations of addition, substraction, multiplication, and division. Exercises must be constructed for each operation, which are graded from the not difficult to the more difficult.

Culture: Lesson Models

These lessons are designed for use with regular classes at the grade level specified.

The language level indicated refers to the E.S.L./D. student's language ability.

The goals of the lessons are to encourage a two-way exchange of cultural information.

Practical Ideas for Helping Students Maintain Positive Attitudes Toward Their Heritage

— Display a map of the world (or a globe) in the classroom. Identify each student's native country and/or district by placing a name tag on the map.

— Display a collection of books, pictures, stamps, currency, toys, souvenirs, and posters of the student's native cultures.

— Invite students to bring in games and songs of their own culture. Have students teach their own songs and games to peers.

— Invite students to bring in slides, snapshots, and photo albums of their own family, ethnic group, or country to share with peers.

— Invite students' parents (as resource persons) to the classroom to teach a simplified version of a dance or a song of their native country or ethnic group.

— Take students out on field trips to visit shops of different ethnic groups, cultural centres, supermarkets, or places of worship.

— Invite resource people of different cultures to speak and/or work with the students.

— Encourage initial art projects that will incorporate arts of different cultures.

— Recognize the students' feast days, festivals, and holidays.

— Invite students to bring in samples of food they eat to share with their peers.

— Invite students (and parents) to prepare an ethnic lunch or food display and share it with peers in the school.

— Invite students to bring in myths, legends, and fables from their own culture and share them with their peers.

— Encourage students to share their cultures with one another. Have students point out similarities and differences among different cultures.

— Initiate an ethnic costume parade.

— Have students make posters of different forms of greetings in their native language.

Lesson Model: New Year

Aim:	to illustrate that the celebration of the New Year takes a variety of forms in our multicultural society
Student Objectives:	to describe and compare at least one way of celebrating New Year that is different from their own
Level:	grades 4, 5, 6, and 7 Language — Intermediate
Materials Needed:	lunar calendar filmstrip of Chinese New Year celebrations artifacts contributed by Chinese students or a resource person (either from class or outside).
Presentation:	Begin by eliciting from students the traditional ways their own families celebrate this holiday (e.g., special food, clothing, songs, and rituals). Note that this part of the lesson will vary with the composition of the class. A large chart for comparison is useful. If different dates for the New Year have not been elicited, introduce the lunar calendar and discuss the Chinese New Year. (e.g., In 1980 the first day of the New Year, the Year of the Monkey, was February 16.)
Activities:	Show the filmstrip. Share the artifacts. Involve resource persons if applicable.
Evaluation of Objectives:	Students use the lunar calendar to discover what year they were born. Students participate in art projects such as making a paper dragon or drawing and illustrating a calendar for the Year of The Monkey or the current symbol.
Follow-up Suggestions:	The class participates in a Chinese New Year celebration in the school or in the community. A lunar calendar is added to the classroom.

Lesson Model: Folktales

Aim:	to illustrate, by using folktales, that all peoples, though culturally unique, share the same feelings and needs
Student Objectives:	to discuss feelings about one of the Japanese folktales and to compare it with other familiar folktales.
Level:	Kindergarten, grades 1, 2, 3, and 4 Language — Intermediate
Materials Needed:	filmstrips of a folktale, e.g., *Tales from Japan* series including *The Moonbeam Princess* and *The Tales of the Dragon*
Presentation:	— Read or tell a well-known folktale such as "Jack and the Beanstalk." Discuss feelings by asking, "How did Jack feel when the giant was chasing him?" and "How did you feel when the giant was chasing Jack?" — Show filmstrips (one of above) as you tell the story. Guide the students in comparing the feelings of the characters in the two folktales and their own feelings and reactions. Lead them to the discovery that cultural aspects make each folktale unique.
Evaluation of Objectives:	Pretend you are a Japanese student living in Japan (or any other culture). Draw your favorite scene from one of the stories.
Follow-up Suggestions:	As a group project, the class, with the help of the teacher, writes a folktale (e.g., Canadian, Japanese, etc.).

Note that folktales from all cultures have been translated into many languages. Sometimes changes are made to accommodate the particular language and culture.

Lesson Model: Feelings and Responsibilities

Aim:	to illustrate that children have feelings and responsibilities
Student Objectives:	to verbalize a feeling they had or have to role play a "feeling" situation to identify possible feelings in certain situations
Level:	kindergarten, grades 1, 2, and 3 Language — Intermediate
Materials Needed:	pictures of children expressing various feelings, and emotions (if obtainable, pictures of children from different cultures) Chandavarkar, Siumana, *Children of India.* New York: Viking Press, 1960. Shorter, Bani, *India's Children.* New York: Viking Press, 1960. Rice, Edward, *Mother India's Children.* U.S.A.: Pantheon Books, 1971.
Presentation:	Introduce the concept of "feelings" by reading a section from one of the books in the preceding list.
Activities:	— Discuss how the child in the story feels. — What has happened to make the child feel this way? — Do you ever feel this way? When? Why? — What would you do if you were in this person's position?
Evaluation of Objectives:	Students participate in mime and role play based either on familiar stories or on free expression.
Follow-up Suggestions:	Have students make a face from construction paper and paste it onto a popsicle stick. Tell a story about the stick figure.

Lesson Model: Schools Around the World

Aim:	to illustrate that children in other parts of the world learn in much the same way as children in Canada
Student Objectives:	to become acquainted with a school system other than their own to point out the similarities and differences between two school systems
Level:	grades 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 Language — Intermediate/Advanced
Materials Needed:	filmstrip — *At a School in Kyoto, Japan* — or any visual showing school life in another country pictures, books of Japan
Presentation:	"Let's discuss our school. How would you describe what you do in school to a visitor from another country?" Possible headings include grades, subjects, teachers, daily routines, extra-curricular activities, special days, and holidays. On the blackboard the teacher organizes the student suggestions under the headings to be used later in lesson.
Activities:	— Locate Japan on a globe/map. — Show the filmstrip and then discuss what similarities and differences you notice. (Use the preceding format as a guide for discussion.)
Evaluation of Objectives:	Divide the class into two groups. One group discusses and records differences while the other looks at similarities. (If there is a Japanese student in the class who has been to school in Japan, he or she is the resource person who can contribute first-hand information to either group.)
Follow-up Suggestions:	Make a wall chart of the two systems. What would you find hard and what would you find easy, if you moved to a Japanese school? What would a Japanese student find hard or easy in our school?

Lesson Model: Musical Instruments

Aim: to demonstrate some of the similarities and differences between musical instruments from Asia and those familiar to students living in Canada

Student Objectives: to list two Asian instruments that are similar to orchestral instruments used in Canada

to describe at least two instruments

to distinguish aurally or visually between Asian and orchestral instruments

Level: grades 4, 5, 6 and 7

Language — Beginning

Materials Needed: pictures of Asian and non-Asian instruments (or the actual instruments if possible)

examples of music (tapes, records, etc.) from Africa, Trinidad, or the Orient

— *Folk Songs of Africa,*

— *The Music of Trinidad*

— *A Music Anthology of the Orient*

— *Folk Music of Pakistan,*

— *Songs of Our Pacific Neighbours, Hawaii, China, Japan, Tahiti, & New Zealand*

Presentation: Show pictures and/or instruments. Elicit questions and participation from students. Asian students will be familiar with some instruments and may even be able to play them. Play short samples of each kind of music. (Choose examples relevant to the interest and age level of your students.) Encourage individual contribution and participation, when preparing for this lesson you may wish to involve parents.

Activities: — A resource person plays a short composition on one (or more) Asian instruments.

— Play a musical guessing game. Students are divided into teams and a short excerpt of music is played. Students guess the instrument while the teacher keeps score.

Evaluation of Objectives:	Students categorize the pictures of instruments according to the instruments being familiar/not familiar in Canada, wind/string, and solo/orchestral.
Follow-up Suggestions:	Pretend you have an instrument you want to sell. Write a description of it for a bulletin board notice, a newspaper advertisement, or a radio announcement.

Lesson Model: Indian Art

Aim:	to introduce students to West Coast Indian Art — The Totem Pole
Student Objectives:	to understand what a totem pole is to appreciate and understand the significance of characters on the totem pole to experience carving their own poles
Level:	grade 4 Language: Beginner
Materials Needed:	pictures of totem poles samples of wooden miniature poles, books filmstrips such as — *Masks of the North American Indians,* — *Totem Poles of the West Coast,* — *Totem Poles,* — *Raising the Gilhaust Pole,* — *Indian Dances & Masks,* and — *Indian Carvings.*
Presentation:	Read a legend from *Tales the Totems Tell* or *Once Upon a Totem.* Discuss what a totem pole is, the characters on a totem pole, and what each character means. Also discuss what tools and what type of wood, paint, and finishing touches are used in the making of a totem pole.
Activities:	— Have students make totem poles (using soap, candles, soft wood). — Have students write descriptions of totem poles. — Read the descriptions to the class.
Evaluation of Objectives:	Students should be able to identify characters on the totem poles and identify which tribe the poles belong to.

Lesson Model: Learning About a Country

Aim:	to teach the "personality" of a country with information on people, countryside, and the cities
Student Objectives:	to "read" pictures to acquire information about a country through observation of a filmstrip
Level:	grade 5 Language — Intermediate
Materials Needed:	pictures, books filmstrip — *Springtime in Holland* globe/wall map overhead projector and transparencies to illustrate enlarged view of the country
Presentation:	Discuss Holland. What's the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the word "Holland"? Write words on board or have students make a list in their books. Go over the words and discuss them. Show the filmstrip.
Activities:	Have a discussion on "What did the filmstrip teach you about Holland that you did not know before? (Discuss occupations, transportation, dress, daily activities, etc.)
Evaluation of Objectives:	Students role play a vignette of life in Holland to demonstrate what they have learned.
Follow-up Suggestions:	Draw a picture about something interesting that you have learned about Holland. Have a role-playing activity. Suppose that you were given an opportunity to improve the country in some way. What would you add or take away?

Lesson Model: Sports

Aim:	to illustrate that sports are an important part of every child's life.
Student Objectives:	to know the types of sports played in Spain to compare sports played in different countries
Level:	grade 4 Language — Intermediate
Materials Needed:	pictures, books, globe filmstrip — *Despartes En Espana* (Spanish commentary) manual — English and Spanish
Presentation:	Discuss our winter and summer sports orally. Record on the blackboard, in columns, our winter and summer sports. Explain that in some countries (as in Spain) there are not as many seasons, and therefore the sports that are played there are quite different from ours. Locate Spain on the globe. What are some of the sports that children in Spain participate in? Discuss this and show filmstrips.
Activities:	— Compare their version of a game with our version of the same game. — Learn the names of their games. — Make up your own game. Give directions on how to play it. Make up a name for it.
Evaluation of Objectives:	Divide the class into small groups. During P.E. class, have the groups explain and play their games. This can be related to sports day.)

Section: VII

Reference Material

Reference Material

Annotated Bibliography of Classroom Materials

A list of commercial material has been identified as suitable for use with E.S.L./D. students. The material is both teacher reference and supplementary student texts and readers.

The annotations will guide teachers in the selection of material most suitable for use with each student or class.

Note that the terms used in the left-hand margins to describe English language acquisition levels are not to be confused with those applied to grade levels:

— Beginner refers to a student with little or no knowledge of English.

— Intermediate refers to a pupil who is expanding upon basic skills but who is not yet ready to refine his or her command of the language.

— Advanced refers to a student who is ready to refine his or her English language skills to a level of proficiency similar to that of a native English speaker.

It is important to keep in mind that students may be at different levels of acquisition in each of the language skills. For example, a student may be at an advanced level in reading but at a beginner level in oral skills (or vice versa).

Teacher Reference

Author: Corine Carruthers

Title: *Open The Lights: E.S.L. Activities for Young Children*

Publisher: Addison Wesley, 1981

This is a teacher resource containing a multitude of practical ideas for use with young E.S.L. students.

Author: Mary Finocchiaro

Title: *From Theory to Practice*

Publisher: Regents, 1974

This book is intended to familiarize teachers of English as a second language with current theories in the field and their implications for practice. Topics discussed include learning a second language, designing curricula for teaching a second language, developing language skills/cultural insights, and instructional materials and techniques. A few sample activities are also provided.

Author: Mary Finocchiaro and Michael Bonomo

Title: *The Foreign Language Learner: A Guide For Teachers*

Publisher: Regents, 1973

This book outlines a variety of ways in which teachers can help students learn listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in a foreign language. Topics covered include "Developing a Curriculum," "Providing Cultural Insights," "Developing Communication Skills," and "Testing and Evaluation." Teachers just beginning E.S.L. work will find many practical classroom activities.

Author: Mary S. Lawrence

Title: *Writing as a Thinking Process*

Publisher: Wiley & Sons, 1976

This text is for senior secondary/adult students of English as a second language at the intermediate and advanced levels. It provides a semantic and cognitive approach to the teaching of expository writing. The exercises are based on the assumptions that writing is a means of communication, that learning to write involves becoming aware of the methods being utilized, and that writing is learned by writing. Exercises progress from controlled to free writing and build on data and methods presented previously.

Author: Robert A. McCracken and Marlene J. McCracken

Title: *Reading Is Only the Tiger's Tail*

Publisher: Leswing Press, 1972

While this book is directed towards teachers of English-speaking children (both standard and non-standard speakers), it contains much of value to teachers of non-English-speaking children as well. The early chapters discuss communication skills and demonstrate the interdependence of their development. The reading program evolves from students' exploration of themes such as "My Friends" and "Things I'd like to Happen to Me." The skills of listening, speaking, thinking, reading, and writing develop in concert.

Author: Don L.F. Nilsen and Alleen Pace Nilsen

Title: *Pronunciation Contrasts in English*

Publisher: Regents, 1973

This book helps teachers of English as a second language deal with pronunciation difficulties. It is intended to serve as an aid in preparing materials for classroom use geared to the individual needs of each student and includes language lists designed to pinpoint those contrasts that can be expected to give trouble to various language speakers, comparative charts and diagrams of sound production, compilations of minimal pairs of words and sentences for practice, and sample exercises.

Author: Muriel Saville-Troike

Title: *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language*

Publisher: Prentice-Hall, 1976

This relatively short, easy-to-read book covers the theoretical foundations of E.S.L. (psychological, linguistic, and cultural) and presents some practical ideas under such chapter headings as "Survival Skills for Students and Teachers" and "Strategies for Instruction." Although the book emphasizes the development of bilingual programs in the American school system, many of the ideas and comments are applicable to Canada.

Author: Eleanor Wall Thonis

Title: *Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers*

Publisher: Collier Macmillan, 1970

The first four chapters in the book review "Reading in the Vernacular" and provide a good theoretical and practical base from which to deal with reading for non-English-speaking students. The later chapters cover the teaching of reading skills, reading in the content area, the selection of materials, and the evaluation of reading growth. There are a great many practical ideas included throughout the book.

Author: Joan Tough

Title: *Listening to Children Talking*

Publisher: Ward Lock Educational, 1978

This book offers practical advice to kindergarten and primary teachers on making an appraisal of a young child's communicative competence, while exploring ideas with him or her and listening to him or her talk. The book consists of three parts: an examination of how language develops, a consideration of some of the problems that hinder young children in their efforts to communicate, and an identification of the various language skills, This enables teachers to determine what the child has already learned to do with language and so helps them decide on the help he or she needs.

Author: Joan Tough

Title: *Talk for Teaching and Learning*

Publisher: Ward Lock Educational, 1979

This book aids teachers of elementary grades analyse and reflect on their teaching practices by increasing their knowledge of the nature of children's talk, the nature of teachers talks, and the role that talk should play in learning and in teaching. Each topic is discussed separately and is followed by material for analysis and discussion, suggested activities, and brief descriptions of more theoretical readings. The format is appropriate for individual and group use.

Multiculturalism

Author: Beverly Allinson and B. O'Kelly

Title: *Kids Like Us* (series)

Publisher: Methuen, 1979

This series helps students develop an understanding and appreciation of Canada's multiculturalism. The characters in the stories are of different racial and ethnic origins, but the focus is on the similarities among the children. Throughout the real and imaginary situations in which the children find themselves, their traditional cultures emerge incidentally as a richness and a factor in their lives and personalities. A teacher's guide is in preparation.

Author: Jack Bavington, Barry Lithwick, Wayne Sproule and Nora Thompson

Title: *Cultures in Canada*

Publisher: Maclean-Hunter, 1979

This book is designed to help students examine the issue of multiculturalism in Canada. The text revolves around three main questions: What is culture and how does it affect our lives? What is a Canadian? and How do the various cultural groups in Canada get along together? Cultural identity, the immigrant experience, prejudice, and stereotyping are among the topics discussed. Questions and activities are included.

Author: Jane Benna and Maureen Seesahai

Title: *Meeting Grounds*

Publisher: School District #41 (Burnaby, British Columbia), 1976

Meeting Grounds is a curriculum development project designed to provide cross-cultural understanding. The book contains numerous activities for interaction between pairs of students. Since many of the students involved in these activities are likely to be E.S.L. students, each activity is coded for English language level as well as age level. By working through a series of these activities, students will learn more about each other and each others' cultural heritage.

Author: Bobbie Kalman

Title: *The Multicultural "Country" and "Festivals" booklets*

Publisher: Crabtree Publishing, 1979

These booklets promote better understanding among students of the various cultures that comprise Canadian society. The "Country" booklets describe the countries that Canadians have come from in terms of religion, theatre, industry, family life, art, history, sports, geography, school, and recreation. The "Festivals" booklets express the culture of a country through its dance, music, theatre, food, and particular forms of celebration, and they compare the Canadian version of a festival with that of the original country.

Author: Elizabeth McCandle (ed.)

Title: *Human Rights: Respecting Our Differences*

Publisher: Alberta Human Rights Commission, 1978

This booklet is based on the assumption that education is the key to overcoming discrimination. It provides an opportunity for students to fully explore all sides of the discrimination issue, including sexual, racial, and ethnic stereotyping, theories of prejudice, the consequences of prejudice, and human rights and the law. Most of the learning occurs through learning activities that focus on realistic, everyday situations. The teachers' manual provides the rationale and objectives for each section and gives instructions for the learning activities.

Author: Various

Title: *Multicultural Canada* series

Publisher: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1978, 1979

This series encourages students to explore the social history of particular ethnic, racial, or religious groups that have helped shape Canadian society. By tracing the experiences of one family through several generations, students learn why the group came to Canada, what cultural heritage it brought, and how it was changed by, and changed, Canadian society. The teacher's resource books provide additional historical background, specific teaching suggestions, additional activities, and a skills development chart.

Supplementary Material

Author: L.G. Alexander (ed.)

Title: *Longman Integrated Comprehension and Composition Series*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1973

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate, advanced

This series provides structurally graded materials suitable for English as a second language comprehension and composition work. There are two books at each of the six levels, one containing fiction and the other non-fiction. Each passage is followed by short guided composition exercises, questions on the text, and exercises using structures and lexical items. A teacher's book and key are also available.

Author: L.G. Alexander

Title: *Question and Answer: Graded Oral Comprehension Exercises*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1978

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, intermediate

This book is a collection of graded passages and exercises for oral comprehension practice. In each of the six chapters that constitute this book, there are ten passages followed by oral exercises which consist of graded questions and answers. The students are required to answer several different kinds of questions and to make appropriate responses in a variety of social situations. Five cassette tapes to accompany the text are available.

Author: L.G. Alexander

Title: *New Concept English*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1967-73

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, intermediate, and advanced

This graded British series consists of four levels: Beginner, Pre-Intermediate, Intermediate, and Advanced. Each level consists of a students' book, Supplementary Written Exercises, a tapescript of recorded drills, and a teacher's book containing detailed suggestions on how to use the course and general principles of language learning. A companion program entitled *Mainline* is also available for reinforcement. This drill-oriented program ranges from oral use of patterns of English to precise use of written language. The contents are presented sequentially and entry is determined by achievement on unit tests which are provided. Subsequent progress through the program is fixed by the nature of the material.

Author: L.G. Alexander

Title: *Look, Listen and Learn! An Integrated English Course for Children*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1971

Grade level: Upper elementary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, intermediate

This British series teaches the use of English over a four-year period. All four language skills are developed using structurally graded materials; however, at Level 1, the emphasis is on aural/oral. The learning approach is for structured settings in the main and focusses on the cognitive. The series contains workbooks, tapes, and filmstrips covering such topics as Stonehenge, the London Tube, au pair girls, and the like.

Author: L.G. Alexander and E.T. Cornelius

Title: *Composition: Exercises in Comprehension & Composition*

Publisher: Longman, 1978

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, advanced

This book provides guidance and training to students in the development of English writing skills. In the first three sections students learn the essentials of writing simple, compound, and complex sentences by reading a paragraph and answering questions based on it in complete sentences. These answers must be written in paragraph form and must often contain specified structures. In the final section students carry out independent writing assignments. Each section is preceded by separate introductory notes to teachers and to students.

Author: L.G. Alexander, Roy Kingsbury, and John Chapman

Title: *Take a Stand*

Publisher: Longman, 1978

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate

This book contains material for practising and developing discussion skills. It provides a framework within which teachers can introduce a topic, clarify the issues involved, and stimulate a class discussion. The 30 topics, generally controversial, are presented through debate notes, editorial letters, well-known comic strips, and other interesting means. A cassette tape to accompany the text is available.

Author: Isabel Barclay

Title: *The Story of Canada*

Publisher: Pagurian Press, 1974

Grade level: Upper elementary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate

This book presents the history of Canada in a simple and interesting manner. The author traces the development of the country, describing the life of its earliest settlers, the Eskimos and the Indians, the coming of the white man, and the inevitable clashes between interested nations, the attempts to brave the wilderness, the gradual settling of the country from coast to coast, and all the hardships and the courage of the men and women who built Canada to the nation it is today.

Author: Ann E. Boehm

Title: *Boehm Resource Guide for Basic Concept Teaching*

Publisher: Psychological Corp., 1976

Grade level: Elementary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, advanced

This kit of materials covers 50 concepts. Each kit has 65 concept cards, 35 game cards, a picture book, and 91 worksheet duplicating masters designed to help the teacher present and evaluate basic concepts. The teacher's manual includes sections on theory, instructional strategies, and suggested activities for small groups.

Author: A.R. Bolitho and P.L. Sandler

Title: *Learn English for Science*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1977

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level:
Upper intermediate, advanced

This is a two-book course for students who need English to read and understand scientific and technical material. The texts are graded and incorporate twelve teaching themes such as jet propulsion, classification, and rocks and 3 revision units. The skills developed are reading and understanding, explaining and defining, symbols, interpreting tables/graphs, and simple report writing. Throughout the course, passives are given special attention. The teacher's books describe the aims of each unit, suggest how to present the theme, give answers to selected exercises, suggest further activities, and discuss the English structures utilized.

Author: Don Byrne and Andrew Wright

Title: *What Do You Think?*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1978

Grade level: Primary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, advanced

These two books for students contain only visual material that provides practice in self-expression for learners of English. The pictures are intended to be interpreted, discussed, and then related to the student's own experience and background. The teacher's books contain a comprehensive introduction and detailed suggestions for the exploitation of each picture.

Author: Julius Crittenden

Title: *English With Solo* (series)

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1978

Grade level: Primary

English acquisition level: Beginners

This series concentrates on learning English through fun and activity. It consists of six graded activity books written for young children who are just beginning to learn English. Various activities allow the children to do a crossword, complete a puzzle, color the pictures, etc. The teacher's guide gives page-by-page instruction on how the workbooks can be used.

Author: Allan K. Dart

Title: *E.S.L. Grammar Workbooks 1 & 2*

Publisher: Prentice-Hall, 1978

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate

These two workbooks constitute a survey of the English language. Grammar explanations are followed by exercises that directly relate to students' daily school, work, and home activities. The exercises are designed to increase cultural awareness and encourage academic development. Because the materials are topical and personal, they serve as a good basis for group discussions and debate.

Author: Robert J. Dixson

Title: *Regents English Workbooks, 1, 2, and 3*

Publisher: Regents, 1969

Grade Level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

These three workbooks contain exercises in grammatical structure, idiomatic usage, vocabulary building, pronunciation, spelling, and punctuation. Each page is a lesson on a single feature of English, and intensive exercises follow each explanation. An answer key is available for Workbooks 1 and 2.

Author: Robert J. Dixson

Title: *Easy Reading Selections in English*

Publisher: Regents, 1971

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate

Short stories by well-known authors, including O. Henry, Poe, and Hawthorne, are simplified, adapted, and divided into sections suitable for single class periods. Each section is followed by questions and exercises for conversational practice, review, and comprehension. Four cassette tapes to accompany the text are available.

Author: Robert J. Dixson

Title: *Graded Exercises in English*

Publisher: Regents, 1971

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, low intermediate

The exercises in this practice book in English grammar are varied, but each is arranged around only one grammar point. Grammatical principles are defined and parts of speech are presented in different forms. It also deals with special difficulties of structure, usage, and punctuation. An appendix presents the principal parts of irregular verbs and sample conjugation of verbs. An answer key is available.

Author: Robert J. Dixson

Title: *Modern Short Stories in English*

Publisher: Regents, 1971

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Advanced

These short stories by well-known writers deal mainly with present-day American life, but their themes are universal: love, work, and the human condition. Each story is presented almost as written and can be studied in one or two class sessions. It is followed by comprehension questions, sentence construction exercises, and vocabulary practice. Four cassette tapes to accompany the text are available.

Author: Robert J. Dixson

Title: *Elementary Reader in English*

Publisher: Regents, 1971

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This book, the first in a graded series of three books of short stories, presents selections of interest to the older student. Each of the 17 stories is divided into one and two page sections. Comprehension questions, vocabulary review, and structural exercises accompany each story to facilitate practice in both oral and written expression. Cassette tapes are also available.

Author: Gertrude Nye Dorry

Title: *Games for Second Language Learning*

Publisher: McGraw-Hill, 1966

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner, advanced

This book provides teachers with a collection of language-practice games suitable for learners of English as a second language. The games have been grouped according to the aspect of language that they emphasize: spelling, vocabulary, structures, pronunciation, etc. Prefacing notations describe possible group size, game type, and student English language level.

Author: Fraida Dubin and Myrna Margol

Title: *It's Time to Talk*

Publisher: Prentice-Hall, 1977

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate, advanced

This text encourages spontaneous use of English with 194 communication activities. Students participate either individually or with partners in small groups or as an entire class. Each lesson presents progressively more difficult activities, most of which can be completed within one class period. Each chapter involves six communication tasks and conceptualizes these tasks in a different social setting. A teacher's guide is available.

Author: Gerald Dykstra, Richard, Port, and Antonette Port

Title: *Ananse Tales — A Course in Controlled Composition* (series)

Publisher: Teachers College Press, 1966

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, upper intermediate

This series provides a programmed course in writing which engages the student in extensive practice. Each passage is followed by exercises which require the student to modify and transform the text. The exercises progress from the relatively mechanical to free composition, and each step is numbered so that the student can repeat a given step as often as necessary but on different passages. The accompanying workbook prepares the student to do the exercises in the text. The teacher's manual explains the purpose and design of the textbook and gives detailed instructions for assistance with each step.

Author: Gerald Dykstra, Richard Port, and Antonette Port

Title: *Composition: Guided — Free* (series)

Publisher: Teachers College Press, 1974

Grade level: Books 1-4, primary, upper elementary
Books 5-8, upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level:

Books 1-4, beginner
Books 5-8, intermediate, advanced

This series of books presents a new approach to writing, based on both learning theory and the discipline of linguistics. The students learn to write by writing. The exercises are tightly controlled at first to ensure successful attainment of specific goals, but they gradually progress to free composition. Each step is numbered so that additional practice using a different passage can be provided. The teacher's manual includes an exploration of the purpose and design of the materials, instructions for using them, and a breakdown of the steps involved in the program.

Author: Mary Finocchiaro and Violet Lavenda

Title: *Selections for Developing English Language Skills*

Publisher: Regents, 1973

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level:

Beginner, intermediate

This workbook contains short reading selections for improving listening, reading, and writing skills. It is divided into two major parts: listening and comprehension, and reading comprehension. The selections, which are followed by comprehension questions, may also be used in a variety of related activities fully described in the instructions to teachers and students. All listening comprehension passages are available on cassettes. An answer key is available.

Author: Mary Finocchiaro and Violet Lavenda

Title: *Growing in English Language Skills: Steps to Communicative Competence*

Publisher: Regents, 1977

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:

Intermediate, advanced

This text helps students develop communicative competence. Intended for non-native speakers, this text provides variations in learner participation and allows the teacher to individualize instruction. Each of the 30 units presents a reading passage followed by comprehension exercises, vocabulary studies, grammar reviews, picture studies, and enrichment activities designed to lead students toward correct and appropriate use of English. All passages are available on cassette. An answer key is available.

ESS 204

Author: Joann Fokes

Title: *Fokes Sentence Builder Kit*

Publisher: Ginn, 1976

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner

The *Fokes Sentence Builder Kit* helps students develop skills of verbal expression, comprehension, and sentence construction through its structured approach to teaching grammar. It was designed primarily for the language-disordered child. Students create their own grammatically correct sentences by choosing cards from two or more of the five boxes provided (clothing, household items, varied categories, living parts and wholes, foods and animals, and functions). Each box contains cards representing different categories of words. Sentence type, complexity, and tense can be varied, depending on the number and the order of boxes used. Instructions are provided in the teacher's guide.

Author: Carolyn Graham

Titles: *Jazz Chants for Children; Jazz Chants*

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1979

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This is a collection of 41 chants, songs, and poems that set everyday English to jazz rhythms to demonstrate the rhythm and intonational pattern of conversational English. Each item, recorded on cassette by the author and a choral speaking group, is accompanied in the text by structure, pronunciation, and presentation notes, and is meant to reinforce specific language structures. The teacher's edition features a general introduction to the technique and detailed suggestions for presentation of each activity and enrichment.

Author: Millie Grenough

Title: *Sing It!*

Publisher: McGraw-Hill, 1976

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary, and secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This book helps people who are learning English to develop listening powers and facility in pronunciation by listening to songs and then singing along. The 39 selections are organized to illustrate a progression from simple to more complex grammatical structures. The teacher's manual contains specific suggestions for presenting and building on each song. An index of grammatical structures is included. Casette tapes of the songs are available.

Author: L.A. Hill

Title: *Contextualized Vocabulary Tests* (series)

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1970

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, advanced

Each story in these books contains gaps that are to be filled in from the words printed at the beginning of the story. Illustrations help the student to choose the correct word. The books are graded in difficulty from 500 headwords in the first book to 2,075 headwords in Book 3.

Author: L.A. Hill

Titles: *Elementary Comprehension Pieces; Intermediate Comprehension Pieces*

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1977

Grade level: Elementary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate

This graded series of books introduces the learner to the careful reading of short passages and the answering of a gradually developing range of comprehension questions. Each book contains about 30 passages on a variety of topics, each followed by a set of comprehension questions. The vocabulary is controlled and a word list is included at the end of the chapter.

Author: L.A. Hill

Titles: *Elementary/Intermediate/Advanced Stories for Reproductions*

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1977

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate

This graded series of books trains the student in the understanding and reproducing of material which he or she has listened to or read. Each book contains short anecdotes for oral or written retelling, and these are followed by a variety of exercises. Both vocabulary and grammatical structures are controlled, and a word list is included at the end of each book. A cassette tape and an answer key are available for each book.

Author: A.O. Hughes (ed.)

Title: *Basic Language Skills* (series)

Publisher: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1979

Grade level: Upper elementary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate, advanced

The purpose of this series is to help students develop a solid base of communication skills that will enable them to express themselves clearly and meaningfully. Each of the six books is based on a theme and contains integrated units of reading materials, language study, and writing skills. The teacher's resource book outlines the aims and organization of the series, and contains sections on preparation, initiating activities, developmental activities, additional activities, explanations of the text, selected references, and a scope and sequence chart.

Author: Doris Kernan

Title: *Steps to English* (series)

Publisher: McGraw-Hill, 1975

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner

This series is designed to develop language skills through carefully controlled audio-lingual visual programs consisting of six student texts and workbooks, cue cards, and tape recordings. The exercises involve both drill and personalized manipulation of language and progress from spoken to written language. The teacher's editions contain comments, suggestions, and supplementary material.

Author: R. Lado and R. Tremblay

Title: *Lado English Series*

Publisher: Centre Educatif et Culturel, 1976-79

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate, advanced

This Canadian series is designed to give context for graded material for all four language skills. Five levels cover 63 current themes through texts, workbooks, cassettes, filmstrips, and slides. Coverage is done in a frequently repeated pattern with an approach that specifies simultaneous oral and written use of the language.

Author: W.R. Lee

Title: *Language Teaching Games and Contests*

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1976

Grade level: Primary, adult

English acquisition level: Beginner, advanced

In this book numerous descriptions of games and game-like activities for oral language usage, pronunciation, spelling, reading, and writing are offered to the teacher of children who are learning English as a second language. These activities involve the entire class. The book includes a chapter on various aspects of the concept of games.

Author: Vera McLay

Title: *Idioms* (series)

Publisher: Public Service Commission of Canada, 1979

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Upper intermediate, advanced

These booklets are intended to provide practice with English idioms and proverbs and in using them appropriately, depending on the context. The contexts depicted range from typical street situations to office talk often heard in business and government. Although the books are designed to be self-instructional, exercises can be done individually or in groups. A cassette tape of all the situations is available as well as section tests.

Author: Marion Monroe and Andrew Schiller

Title: *My Pictionary*

Publisher: Gage Educational, 1979

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

The 550 labelled semi-realistic pictures in this book are organized into nine color-coded categories: people, animals, story book characters, what we do, things, places, colors, numbers, and words that help. An alphabetical index is supplied.

Author: E.G. Parnwell

Title: *Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English*

Publisher: Oxford University Press, 1978

Grade level: Primary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This dictionary is intended for learners of English who wish to build up their vocabulary. Over 2,000 English words are semi-realistically illustrated in color pictures, covering 45 topics such as town and countryside, the home, animals, plants, space, occupations, recreation, travel, mathematics, science, the human body, clothes, sports, weights and measures, verbs, and nouns of quantity. An alphabetical index (with pronunciation guide) is included.

Author: Gloria Paulik-Sampson

Title: *New Routes to English* (series)

Publisher: Collier Macmillan Canada, 1980

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate, and advanced

This spirally graded series provides functional contexts in which students can develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. The major intent is to prepare students to study or work in settings where English is used for communication. Each of the three levels consists of two sub-levels containing a student text, workbook, and detailed teacher's guide which provides specific lesson plans. Tapes and cassettes are supplementary. The program provides key activities as well as reinforcement and enrichment activities as needed. At all levels, oral language is emphasized, although reading and writing activities become increasingly predominant at the advanced level.

TOS

Author: John Ridge and June Derrick

Title: *Scope Stage 1*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1978

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, advanced

Scope Stage 1 aims first to give students a sound elementary knowledge of spoken English and then to develop reading and writing skills. The teacher's book provides a full introduction to the program with detailed instructions for the use of all course materials. It also contains the oral language scheme which forms the basis of the course and offers step-by-step advice on presentation of language and teaching technique. Indexes of structural patterns and speechwork are included.

Author: W.R. Slager and H.E. Goodrich (Books 1-2) Elsie Wolk (Books 3-4)

Title: *Core English* (series)

Publisher: Ginn, 1971-72

Grade level: Primary

English acquisition level: Beginner, advanced

This series is designed to provide for sequential growth in English oral language skills through listening and speaking. The 192 lessons cover 12 topics in cumulative fashion. Lessons have a similarity for all levels, and the approach is "programmed" for a structured setting. Supporting materials such as records, puppets, wall charts, workbooks, and picture cards are integral to the design of the material. No cassettes are available.

Author: John Trevaskis and Robin Hyman

Title: *Boys' and Girls' first Dictionary*

Publisher: Copp Clark Pitman, 1979

Grade level: Primary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This dictionary of almost 2,000 words is designed to explain words to students in terms they can read and understand. There is a full color cartoon-style illustration for most words, and the text is entirely metric with updated Canadian content. Nine wordlists are included at the back of the book on such topics as colors, months, and girls' names.

Author: Various

Title: *Skillbooster* (series)

Publisher: Globe/Modern Curriculum Press, 1978

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner, lower intermediate

These five workbooks are designed to promote skill development in six critical reading areas: vocabulary, comprehension, using facts and details, organizing information, using references, and following directions. Each workbook follows the same structured format and may be used with students individually or in groups to do activity matching. An answer page and skills index are included.

Author: R. Wardhough,
A. Madsen, *et. al.*

Title: *English for a Changing World* (series)

Publisher: Scott Foresman,

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, upper intermediate

This six-level series is designed to develop all four communications skills. Emphasis is on an understanding of North American culture. Components of each level vary slightly, but all contain a student text, teacher manual, and exercise book. Also available are cue books, cassette tapes, display cards, and word cards for lower levels. By the end of the series the student is expected to comprehend a 2,800 word cumulative vocabulary when listening or reading.

Supplementary Readers

Author: W.S. Allen (ed.)

Title: *Longman Structural Readers* (series)

Publisher: Longman Group

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

This extensive series of readers contains original modern writing as well as the classics. The books have been graded in six stages by structure as well as by controlled vocabulary. Material ranges from shorter fiction, non-fiction, and how-to books to poetry, abridged novels, and plays. Exercises and glossaries are generally provided. A handbook for the series is available providing details on the grading and vocabulary which takes students from a vocabulary of 300 words to 1,800 words.

Author: J.A. Bright (ed.)

Title: *The Bridge Series*

Publisher: Longman Group

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate

This series of 31 fiction and non-fiction books is intended for English as a second language students who are familiar with English syntax and who command a vocabulary of 3,000 words and up. Most of the books are adaptations of novels with a known appeal. The author's syntax is preserved and effort is made to maintain the original flavor and literary value while giving practice to the reader in more advanced structures and extending vocabulary range. A glossary of less familiar words is provided in each text.

Author: Lois Dalby and Jeanette McCrie

Title: *Makwa Series*

Publisher: Peguis Publishers

Grade level: Elementary

English acquistion level:

The books in this series are intended to be used as a means of encouraging oral expression. In addition, each of the six books has a different specific purpose: to illustrate the positive relationship between grandparents and children, to remove confusion over English pronouns and definition of gender, to emphasize sequence of actions and the results, to clarify English prepositions, to emphasize rhyming words and listening skills, and to encourage discussion about family relationships. The teacher's guide at the end of each book provides background information, suggests activities, and lists the vocabulary introduced. Four of the books feature native Canadian Indian families and activities.

Author: Richard Lewis

Title: *Reading For Adults, Books 1, 2, & 3*

Publisher: Longman Group, 1978

Grade level: Secondary

English acquisition level: Intermediate, advanced

The aim of this series is to help students become fluent in reading. The reading materials have been selected for their interest and language level. Progress is from brief passages to facsimiles of reading matter found in newspapers, magazines, brochures, guidebooks, and the like. Vocabulary and structures have been controlled. The exercises are designed to bring into productive use the language forms encountered in the passages, to give the students practice in skimming for information, and to improve reading skills.

Author: Bill Martin Jr.

Title: *Instant Readers*

Publisher: Holt, Rinehart & Winston of Canada

Grade level: Primary, upper elementary

English acquisition level: Beginner

These 30 books contain repetitive patterns and structural consistencies that can be easily recognized. Content progresses from relatively simple rhyme and repetition to more sophisticated use of adverbs, adjectives, and a wide range of sentence patterns, and can be used for both individual and group reading. There is a teacher's guide for each level which provides the rationale, discusses the books, and suggests follow-up activities.

Author: Ralph F. Robineet, Paul W. Bell, and Pauline M. Rojas

Title: *Miami Linguistic Readers*

Publisher: D.C. Heath Canada Ltd.

Grade level: Primary

English acquisition level: Beginner, lower intermediate

This is a beginning reading series which includes emphasis on decoding, grammatical structure, spelling patterns, and handwriting. Level 1 includes a placement test, a decoding manual containing drill in aural-oral discrimination and sound-symbol correspondence, pre- and post tests, and a classroom kit. The Components Seatwork books provide reinforcing activities. The series is based on the premises that sound-symbol correspondences should be presented initially, and grammatical vocabulary/structures should be controlled. The teacher's manuals offer strategies for teaching each page as well as activities.

Author: Michael West (ed.)

Title: *New Method Supplementary Readers*

Publisher: Longman Group

Grade level: Primary, secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, upper intermediate

This 7-stage series of roughly 100 fiction titles is based on a systematic word count, ranging from a vocabulary of 500 words at stage 1 to 2,500 words at stage 7. Each book is illustrated and includes questions on the text, a glossary, and a pronunciation guide. Many of the books are adaptations of the classics. A guide to graded reading discusses structural and vocabulary control, supplementary activities, organizing a library, and so on.

Author: Various

Title: *Longmans' Simplified English Series*

Publisher: Longmans, Green

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level:
Intermediate, advanced

This series of 50-odd titles, for English as second language/dialect students emphasizes comprehension activities and the appreciation of English language classics. The materials are generally novels, but short stories and plays are available. Vocabulary, sentence length, and structure are simplified to a large extent, and difficult words are explained when they first appear. A basic vocabulary of 200 words is suggested. Questions are included at the end of each story.

Author: Various

Title: *Oxford Graded Readers*

Publisher: Oxford University Press

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level:
Beginner, intermediate

These illustrated books are intended to provide novels, fables, short stories, fairy tales, and classics for both classroom and individual use. Vocabulary and structures are graded (according to L.A. Hill's scheme) and grouped into five stages: Headwords, 500, 750, 1,000, 1,500, 2,075. Each stage contains two levels of interest — Junior and Senior — to offer a variety of content to readers of different ages. Although book contents vary, glossaries, crosswords, coloured illustrations, matching exercises, language, and comprehension exercises, and so on, are supplied.

Author: Various

Title: *Oxford Progressive English Readers*

Pulbisher: Oxford University Press

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Upper intermediate, advanced

This is a series of supplementary readers in three levels. Vocabulary and structures are carefully graded. The series begins with 1,900 headwords and progresses to 5,000 words. Although the majority of the titles in the series are retold classics, simplified contemporary writing and some original stories are included.

Author: Various

Title: *Pacemaker Classics*

Publisher: Copp Clark Pitman

Grade level: Upper elementary, secondary

English acquisition level: Beginner, intermediate

Each classic is written using controlled vocabulary that retains the excitement and flavor of the original as much as possible. The eight books contain color illustrations. The teacher's guide for each classic contains vocabulary words, author information, teaching suggestions, and comprehension questions for each chapter.

ES 214

Community Resources

The school is only one of the community agencies that provide services to students and their families. Knowledge of assistance that is available from other agencies is often necessary and useful for teachers.

Resources will, of course, vary from district to district. The following annotated list provides examples of the kind of resources accessible to most communities.

The Immigrant Services Society of B.C.

622 Seymour Street
Vancouver, B.C. V6T 1H5

This is an information and service centre for immigrants which assists and encourages their integration into the community. It publishes information pamphlets and newsletters and sponsors English training classes (some of which are outside the Vancouver area).

Public Health Services

In every district health units provide general services. These include home visits by community health nurses, child health counselling, school health services, immunization, expectant parent classes, dental health services, home care services, long term care services, services for older people, health education and nutrition information, environmental health services, mental health services, and licensing community care facilities such as boarding and personal care homes, pre-school, and day-care centres. Teachers should contact community health nurses for advice and direction regarding any health care services.

Canada Employment and Immigration Commission

B.C. Yukon Regional Office
Box 11145, Royal Centre
1055 West Georgia
Vancouver, B.C. V6E 2P8

This Federal Commission provides services formerly supplied by the Unemployment Insurance Commission and the Department of Manpower and Immigration. Information and advice regarding employment opportunities, counselling, vocational rehabilitation, and consultative services are available from every Canada Employment Centre. There is at least one such centre in every school district.

The Legal Aid Society of British Columbia

195 Alexander Street
Vancouver, B.C. V6A 1N3

This organization provides free legal aid to those who cannot pay for the services of a lawyer. Assistance is available in criminal and civil law and in family law.

Human Rights Branch

Ministry of Labour
4946 Canada Way
Burnaby, B.C. V5G 4J6

This office administers the B.C. Code of Human Rights. Discrimination on the basis of race, religion, sex, color, ancestry, age, marital status, and place of origin is prohibited by this code.

Medical Services Plan of British Columbia

This plan provides all residents of B.C. and their dependents with coverage for required medical, surgical, obstetrical, and diagnostic services, provided that the required premiums are paid. Many employers provide payment or partial payment premiums as part of the employment conditions.

A newcomer to the province becomes eligible for this service after a period of three months residence.

Hospital Programs

The Hospital Insurance Act provides all qualified residents with hospital care at a low daily rate. Higher rates are charged for semi-private or private facilities. A resident becomes eligible for this service after a period of three months.

B.C. Government Emergency Service

Ministry of the Provincial Secretary
501 West 12th Avenue
Vancouver, B.C. V5Z 1M4

This office provides the public with telephone information about services available from provincial government departments and agencies.

Ministry of Human Resources

This government department is responsible for the administration of acts pertaining to citizens in need of financial assistance. There are district offices throughout the province where specific information is available.

Services for Children:

This provincial ministry is responsible for the general welfare of all children in B.C. Its primary objective is the provision of support services to children and their families in crisis and the maintaining of a natural family relationship for children by preventing family breakdown where possible. It also provides child aid programs designed to help children with medical, psychological, and/or learning problems.

Through the Ministry of Human Resources offices, social workers are available for advice or consultation in every district.

Local Church Groups

In every community there are church groups which offer help materially and spiritually whenever it is needed. Assistance is given on a non-denominational basis; most churches regard social service work as part of their mission in the community.

Local Service Groups

Groups such as the Kinsmen, the Kiwanis, and the Rotarians provide services that will improve the quality of life in their communities. Many young people have completed their education because of help received from one of these groups.

Native Indian Friendship Centres

These organizations have become well known in the past few years because of their support for native Indians, especially young people. Teachers will find these centres a good source of support and information that will help Indian students in school and will educate non-Indian students about many aspects of our Canadian heritage.

Indian Band Councils

In smaller districts particularly, band councils try to help and encourage young Indians to develop their potential. Resource people, advice, information, and, in some cases, materials are available to the teacher who requests help.

School Boards

These elected bodies administer the School Act from kindergarten to grade 12 in every district. In some communities the Adult Education Department of the School Board offers classes in English language for all who wish to register. Fees are nominal.

Regional Colleges

Throughout the province, regional colleges have been established to supplement and reinforce the education continuum. In many districts colleges offer courses for adults in English language and/or in Basic Education as well as many university credit courses and career programs.

Community Recreation Facilities

In most communities these facilities are centralized in a community centre. The programs offered are different in every location, but the mandate for community centres emphasizes quality programs to meet the expressed needs of the people it serves regardless of their age, sex, religion, or political affiliation.

Notes

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2. Ibid., p. 20.
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5. Joshua Fishman, "Bilingual Education: An International, Sociolinguistic Perspective," *E.S.L. and Bilingual Education,* (Albany: Univ. of the State of New York, 1978), p. 4.
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3. Muriel Saville-Troike, *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language,* (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976), p. 25.

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10. Jean Piaget and Barbel Inhelder, *The Psychology of the Child,* (New York: Basic Book, 1969), p. 87.
11. Lev S. Vygotsky, *Thought and Language,* (Cambridge Mass.: M.I.T. Press, 1962), p. 59.
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14. Barry McLaughlin, *Second Language Acquisition in Childhood,* (Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1978), p. 26.
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16. Falk, *Linguistics and Language,* p. 201.
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18. Falk, *Linguistics and Language,* p. 287.
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